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ABSTRACT

This publication was prepared to provide background material for U.S. businessmen and others who may be employing local workers in Denmark, trade union and labor specialists, consulting economists, and students. Included is a discussion of: (1) manpower resources and geographic, political, economic cultural, and social factors, (2) the Danish government and legislation affecting labor, (3) labor and management organizations and industrial relations, and (4) employment conditions, including employment practices, working hours, benefits, wages, workmen's compensations, social insurance, and employee cooperatives (SB)

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
Bureau of Labor Statistics

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REPORT 390

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
James D. Hodgson, Secretary
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS
Geoffrey H. Moore, Commissioner

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Preface

This report is one of a series prepared in the Division of Foreign Labor Conditions, Bureau of Labor Statistics. The series is intended to provide background material for U.S. businessmen and others who may be employing local workers abroad, trade union and labor specialists, consulting economists, and students. The report also will be useful to persons concerned in more general ways with labor in foreign countries.

Source material used to prepare the study included information gathered in the field by the author, U.S. Foreign Service reports, publications of the Government of Denmark and of trade union and management organizations, and other printed sources. Most of the research was completed in January 1971; a limited amount of additional data subsequently became available and has been incorporated.

This report was prepared by Julia E. Hyman, Special Assistant to the Division Chief.

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DENMARK
International boundary
Amtskommune boundary
National capital
Copenhagen and Frederiksberg kommunes
Skagerrak
Kattegat
NORDJYLLANDS
Ålborg
SWEDEN
VIBORG
Randers
ÅRHUS
Århus
RINGKØBING
JUTLAND (Jylland)
VEJLE
RIBE
Esbjerg
FYNS
Odense
FUNEN (Fyn)
Haderslev
North Sea
SØNDERJYLLANDS
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY
BORNHOLM
BORNHOLMS
15
55
The Sound
HAVNS
ZEALAND (Sjaellaric)
Baltic Sea
LOLLAND/FALSTER
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PART I. THE COUNTRY AND ITS WORKERS

Chapter I. Geographic, Political, and Economic Factors

Geographic Setting

The Kingdom of Denmark, excluding Greenland and the Faroe Islands,[1] occupies 16,600 square miles, an area about twice the size of the State of Massachusetts. It is made up of almost 500 islands and the peninsula of Jutland (Jylland), which constitute more than two-thirds of the total land area and has a 42-mile land frontier with West Germany to the south. The most important of the islands are: Zealand (Sjaelland), with an area of 2,912 square miles; Funen (Fyn), 1,344 square miles; Lolland, 495 square miles; Falster, 198 square miles; and Bornholm, 227 square miles, which is some distance to the east and almost equi-distant between Sweden and Poland.

The country's water boundaries are the North Sea on the west, and its arms, the Skagerrak and the Kattegat, which separate northern Denmark from Norway and Sweden, respectively; a very narrow strip, the Sound (Øresund), which lies between Zealand and the southern tip of Sweden; and the Baltic Sea to the southeast.

Because of its pivotal position linking the populous nations of continental Europe to Norway, Sweden, and Finland, Denmark has long been an important commercial center in northern Europe. Its geographic location and its close ties with the other Scandinavian countries have led to some migration of workers, the most significant movement being of Danish workers to Sweden, where an average of about 19,000 were working in 1967–70.

Denmark is a low-lying country and has a flat or undulating landscape. Only about 1 percent of the land area rises to more than 300 feet above sea level, and the highest point is only about 500 feet. About 90 percent of Jutland and 99 percent of the island land areas are in productive use.

The country has a temperate maritime climate with comparatively cool summers and mild winters, despite its northerly latitude. It is very windy; prevailing westerly winds blow across the warm waters of the Gulf Stream, and moderate the temperature. Cyclonic storms with winds frequently stronger than 27 knots sweep across the Atlantic in all seasons and are responsible for pronounced day-to-day variations in the weather. Overcast skies predominate and the air is humid in all months. The climate has little effect on work attendance and performance, except for that resulting from respiratory illnesses, which are prevalent because of the high humidity and lack of sunshine. (See Health Conditions.)

The population stood at about 4.9 million in 1969–70. Population density was thus about 300 persons per square mile, or less than half that of West Germany (643 including West Berlin) and about one-fourth less than that of East Germany (408 including East Berlin), but slightly more than Poland (273) and several times that of the neighboring Scandinavian countries, Sweden (47) and Norway (31). Denmark's population is a little greater than that of the State of Massachusetts, so that its population density is about half that of the New England State.

The capital city of Copenhagen (København), by far the most important business and commercial center, has, with its suburbs, a population of about 1.4 million, or over 25 percent of the total population. Five other metropolitan areas have over 50,000 inhabitants: Århus, in eastern Jutland; Odense, in Funen; Ålborg-

[1] Greenland and the Faroe Islands are not covered in this study.

Norresundby and Randers, in northern Jutland; and Esbjerg, in western Jutland.

Political History and Government

At one time Denmark ruled the seas of northern Europe and controlled all of present-day Scandinavia, England, and parts of Germany. A series of wars led to the loss of England (1042), Sweden (1523), Norway (1814), and finally the provinces of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg (1864), though in a 1920 plebiscite North Schleswig became a part of Denmark. Iceland became a kingdom in union with Denmark in 1918, but dissolved the union in 1944. Denmark recognized Iceland's action immediately after the end of World War II.

Denmark is a constitutional monarchy. The reigning sovereign since January 14, 1972, has been Queen Margarethe II, born in 1940, who succeeded her father King Frederick IX, on his death after 25 years on the throne.

Legislative power is vested jointly in the crown and the Parliament (*Folketing*); executive power in the sovereign, who exercises it through his ministers; and judicial power in the courts. The office of Ombudsman, based on the Swedish protctype, became operative in 1955. (See Constitutional Guarantees.)

The division of power among the three branches of government is not absolute. The ministers, who in practice constitute the executive power, are almost always members of the *Folketing*, and therefore share in passing legislation as well as in proposing it. The ministers present most of the bills to the *Folketing*; every member of the *Folketing*, however, has the right to propose a new bill. In order to acquire validity, all acts passed by the *Folketing* must be signed by the sovereign and countersigned by at least one minister, but the ministers have sole responsibility for government decisions.

The *Folketing*, which has been unicameral since 1953, is elected no less frequently than every 4 years, by direct, secret balloting of Danish citizens aged 21 years and over. Two of its 179 members are elected in the Faroe Islands and two in Greenland. Of the remaining 175 members, 135 are elected by proportional representation in 124 constituencies. The 40 "supplementary" seats are divided among the political parties, to make up for the number of votes cast for them and underrepresented by constitutency seats. The parliamentary year begins on the first Tuesday in October. Formally the session lasts the entire year. Usually, however, during some periods no meetings are held; the *Folketing* recesses for several months every summer.

The sovereign's Cabinet consists of a prime minister and a variable number of other ministers, who are generally members of the political party or coalition commanding a legislative majority. No minister may remain in office after the *Folketing* has passed a vote of no confidence in him. A minister occasionally may head more than one ministry. In February 1972 there were, in addition to the prime minister, 18 other ministers, heading up the following ministries:

Ministry of Agriculture
Ministry of Church Affairs
Ministry of Commerce
Ministry of Cultural Affairs
Ministry of Defense
Ministry of Economic and Budget Affairs
Ministry of Education
Ministry of Finance
Ministry of Fisheries
Ministry of Foreign Affairs
Ministry of Foreign Economic Affairs, European Market Relations and Nordic Affairs
Ministry of Greenland
Ministry of Housing
Ministry of Interior
Ministry of Justice
Ministry of Labor
Ministry of Social Affairs
Ministry of Transport, Communications, and Environmental Protection

The administrative work of the various ministries and institutions is carried out in conjunction with decentralized administration in the country's different regions: 2 communes (*kommuner*)—Copenhagen and Frederiksberg; 14 counties (*amtskommuner*) [2]; and about 300 boroughs (*primaerkommuner*), which are subdivisions of the counties.[3] Each county is headed

[2] See frontispiece map.

[3] The local government system was reorganized effective April 1, 1970. Before that date, Denmark was divided into 89 boroughs (*købstaeder*) and townships, and 25 county authorities (*amtskommuner*), the latter subdivided into over 1,300 district authorities (*sognekommuner*). The tiny, densely poulated commune of

by a Governor (*amtmand*); Copenhagen, including Frederiksberg, by a Chief Prefect (*overpraesident*). All of these officials are appointed by the central government and are responsible directly to the Minister of Interior, although they also perform duties for other ministries, e.g., the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Social Affairs. Appointed for an indefinite term on the recommendation of the Cabinet, they supervise the work of the local civil servants and make decisions in a number of cases concerning legal matters. In each of the three types of jurisdiction, the populace elects a council or governing body, which in turn elects its chief executive (burgomaster or mayor): *overborgmester* (in Copenhagen), *amtsborgmester* (county), or *borgmester* (borough and Frederiksberg commune). The *amtmand* and *overpraesident* serve as nonvoting members of the respective councils.

The county councils meet four times a year. Their duties include: levying taxes, preparing a budget, making appropriations, scrutinizing the work of paid county officials, supervising administration of hospitals, building and maintaining main highways (largely financed by county funds), and supervising the boroughs, particularly in the purchase or sale of public properties, borrowing of money, or any unusual increase in the local tax rate. The borough councils evaluate property, determine individual ability to pay taxes, collect national income and property taxes, administer relief and social legislation, and supervise local education affairs, the building of local roads, and the preparation of voter lists for local and national balloting.

The country is divided into 72 police districts, each headed by a Chief Constable, who also serves as the public prosecutor at the local court. His duties include issuance of trade licenses and administration of trade laws, and duties in connection with the building authorities, the fire-fighting services, and conscription.

The regular court system has three echelons: the Lower Courts (*Underretter*), the High Courts (*Landsretter*), and the Supreme Court (*Højesteret*). Some legal cases may be decided at a lower level than a regular (or "established") court or before formal proceedings commence in the regular court. Minor offenses, such as traffic violations, may be disposed of by police officials, the procedure being analogous to that in police courts in the United States. Lower Courts may hear cases on appeals from police courts, but are primarily trial courts of first instance involving penalties of less than 8 years' imprisonment and not of such a minor nature as to be heard by police courts. They also exercise first instance jurisdiction in minor civil cases. There are more than 100 judicial districts in Denmark, each of which has a lower court with one or more legally trained judges.

There are two High Courts—the Eastern High Court in Copenhagen with jurisdiction over the islands, and the Western High Court, at Viborg, with jurisdiction over the mainland of Jutland. These courts have original jurisdiction in major civil cases and in all criminal cases involving a possible penalty of 8 years' imprisonment or longer, and hear appeals from the lower courts. They are the only Danish courts using the jury system (12 jurors). In all trials involving serious offenses, including political crimes, a jury is required by law; in other cases a three-judge panel decides. In jury trials a "guilty" vote by as few as eight jurors is sufficient for conviction.

The Supreme Court consists of 15 member judges, at least 5 of whom must participate in each case and all 15 in extremely important instances.

In addition to the regular courts, there are also a Labor Court (see Settlement of Disputes), a Maritime and Commercial Court, and several other specialized courts.

The National Economy

Denmark has one of the most highly developed economies among the small countries of the world. Its standard of living, according to most indexes, is among the highest in Europe. This prosperity is based on an advanced industrial development, efficient agricultural production, and well-functioning social and political institutions. Its development into a modern industrial state with a diversified and dynamic economy, in the face of an almost com-

Frederiksberg (about 102,750 inhabitants in 3.386 square miles) has for years been completely surrounded by Copenhagen commune but has been allowed to retain its local elected administration.

plete lack of industrial raw materials and fuels, has come about through wise utilization of investment capital since World War II.

By 1969 the gross national product (GNP) had risen almost 25 percent above the 1964 level, to the equivalent of US$14 billion at current prices. The 1969 per capita GNP in Denmark was the equivalent of US$2,860 (cf. US$2,850 per capita national income), well above the average for Western Europe (US$1,870 for the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development member countries of Europe) and higher than for most non-Communist countries of northern Europe—the United Kingdom (US$1,970), the Netherlands (US$2,190), Belgium (US$2,360), West Germany (US$2,520), and Norway (US$2,530)—but considerably below that in Sweden (US$3,490), which had the highest per capita GNP in Europe. In 1968, the latest date for which information is available, manufacturing provided over one-fourth (28.2 percent) of total GNP; government services (14.9 percent) and trade (13.5 percent) were next in importance, as shown in the tabulation below:

	Percent
All sectors	100.0
Agriculture	8.3
Forestry and fishing	.7
Mining and quarrying	(1)
Manufacturing	28.2
Construction	9.3
Electricity, gas, and water	2.1
Transportation and communication	10.0
Wholesale and retail trade	13.5
Banking, insurance, and real estate	2.9
Ownership of dwellings	5.6
Government services	14.9
Miscellaneous services	4.5

[1] Less than 0.1 percent.

Danish industrial production covers a wide range. Most of the highly specialized manufacturing industries depend upon imported raw materials. This is particularly true of the largest single group, the metal and metal processing, and machine industries, which provided about 28 percent of the total manufacturing output in 1968. However, the second largest group, the food industry, depends mainly on domestic raw materials. The expansionary trend in chemistry, electronics, and other forms of advanced production requiring considerable capital investment, is noteworthy. Table 1 shows the distribution by industry of the major manufacturing enterprises (those having six wage earners or more), their numbers of wage earners, and gross value of production and value added by manufacturing in 1968.

TABLE 1. NUMBER OF WAGE EARNERS, VALUE OF PRODUCTION AND VALUE ADDED BY MANUFACTURING, OF MAJOR [1] MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, 1968

[Values in millions of Danish kroner [2]]

Industry	Number of wage earners	Value of production		
		Total value	Value added	
			Amount	Percent of total value
All industries	285,197	40,870	18,464	45.2
Food	36,789	10,642	2,613	24.5
Beverage	8,812	1,149	768	66.8
Tobacco	5,294	604	319	52.8
Textile	16,760	1,768	818	46.3
Footwear and clothing	19,430	1,527	743	48.7
Wood articles	9,103	851	440	51.7
Furniture	9,773	939	509	54.2
Paper	8,245	1,125	515	45.8
Printing and publishing	16,869	2,074	1,396	67.3
Leather and leather products	1,750	191	87	45.5
Rubber	2,749	235	139	59.1
Chemical	11,315	3,386	1,641	48.5
Oil and coal products	1,332	1,575	332	21.1
Stone, clay, and glass	18,023	1,887	1,280	67.8
Metal	5,669	1,079	352	32.6
Metal products	22,344	2,256	1,214	53.8
Engine and iron foundary	31,736	3,449	1,959	56.8
Electrical machine	20,334	2,205	1,212	55.0
Transport equipment	26,171	2,447	1,225	50.1
Miscellaneous	12,708	1,481	904	61.0

[1] Establishments employing 6 wage earners or more.

[2] DKr1=US$0.145.

SOURCE: U.S. Embassy, Copenhagen, June 3, 1971.

Danish industry is mainly the creation of free enterprise, and the great majority of the industrial establishments are owned by private individuals and companies. In the early 1960's, about one-third were limited liability companies, and these were responsible for about two-thirds of total industrial employment.

Most industrial enterprises when measured by number of employees are relatively small. The average number of employees is 100, and half the industrial labor force work is in establishments of this size or smaller. In the early 1960's, the largest enterprise employed about 8,000 workers, and only 20 employed over 1,000 workers each. In 1965 the size of 6,764 industrial establishments was as follows:

Number of employees	*Establishments*		*Percent of total employment*
	Number	*Percent*	
Total	6,764	100.0	100.0
500 or more	95	1.4	27.0
200–499	286	4.2	29.3
100–199	458	6.8	15.3
50–99	877	13.0	14.7
10–49	3,795	56.1	20.7
Less than 10	1,253	18.5	2.0

About three-fourths of Denmark's total land area is devoted to agriculture. The country is almost entirely self-sufficient agriculturally, and

its surplus agricultural production, both processed and unprocessed, accounts for about one-third the total value of exports. Although agriculture accounts for less than 10 percent of the GNP, highly intensive cultivation and the application of artificial and natural fertilizers to the land produce yields per acre of wheat, barley, and oats that are among the highest in the world. Danish farms also turn out considerable quantities of root crops, other grains, and grass. Nevertheless, additional amounts of imported feedstuffs are needed for livestock production, which in 1967 accounted for 90 percent of the total estimated value (DKr9.5 billion) of all vegetable and animal production. An estimated 98 percent of all farms are privately owned and 95 percent are operated by their owners. About 35 percent of the country's farms are under 25 acres, but large holdings bring the average size to 48 acres, larger than the average for any other Western European country except England. Danish farms are becoming fewer and larger despite an 86-acre size limitation imposed by the Government on farm mergers.

Denmark ranks third among the nations of Europe in fishing, and fifth among the nations of the world in fish exporting.

Denmark has excellent transportation and communications systems. Inland goods transport is fairly evenly distributed among rail, road, and water transport, although the biggest share, including practically all short hauls, is by road; this share is increasing. During 1960–68 the number of automobiles rose by about one and one-third, trucks and vans by about half, and buses and coaches by one-third, so that although railroads adequately serve the country's economic needs, increasing traffic is straining the capacity of the highways. Denmark's telecommunications facilities satisfy the requirements of the Government and the public for telephone, telegraph, and broadcast services.

Denmark has a relatively large volume of foreign trade; about 25 percent of total GNP is exported. In 1968, food products accounted for about 34 percent of total exports of US$2,575 million f.o.b.; fish, another 4 percent. Industrial products provided 59 percent, with machinery (20 percent) leading in this category. Other important industrial exports were chemicals and pharmaceuticals, textile products, metal manufactures, and ships. By 1970 agriculture's share in exports had declined to 25 percent. Imports, valued at US$3,200 million c.i.f. in 1968, consisted primarily of raw materials and semimanufactured products for domestic industry and agriculture. The principal imported commodities were machinery and equipment (about 17 percent of the 1968 total), solid fuel and petroleum products (11 percent), motor vehicles (5 percent), base metals (8 percent), chemicals (9 percent including fertilizers), textiles (8 percent), timber, grain, feedstuffs, and oilseeds. Although about 80 percent of Denmark's trade is with European countries, the United States ranks fourth among its trading partners, as shown below in percent of value of exports and imports in 1968 and 1970:

	Imports		*Exports*	
	1968	*1970*	*1968*	*1970*
West Germany	19	19	12	13
Sweden	15	16	15	17
United Kingdom	14	14	21	19
United States	9	8	8	8

Denmark has had large annual trade deficits over the past decade. Substantial increases in industrial exports have been insufficient to finance increasing imports resulting from expanding consumption and investment. The situation is in some measure helped by earnings from shipping, travel expenditures, and other invisibles but not enough to prevent a recurring payments deficit.

Chapter II. Cultural Factors

Ethnic and Linguistic Groups

The Danish population is racially and culturally homogenous. About 99 percent of all Danes are of Nordic racial stock, descended from wandering Germanic tribes—Angles, Saxons, and Danes—who settled in Denmark during the first centuries after Christ. The only significant non-Danish minority are the approximately 30,000 persons of German origin, most of whom live near the German frontier, in southern Jutland. They are permitted to have their own schools and churches.

Danish, the official language, belongs to the East Scandinavian group of Germanic languages. It is so closely related to Swedish and Norwegian that natives of these three Scandinavian countries, without special training, can read all three languages, and albeit with some difficulty can even converse with each other, each speaking in his own language. There are many dialects of the Danish language spoken in the various parts of the country, but the influence of mass communications is bringing about a uniformity of usage and pronunciation. Although the various dialects can be understood by all Danes, they are distinct enough for most Danes to "place" a person through his speech.

Both English and German are taught to a considerable degree in the schools. (See Education.) The average Dane, however, has no knowledge of English or is limited to a few basic English expressions, although a number of Danes, including businessmen, government officials, and professional people, are quite fluent in English and many others have some proficiency. A few officials and some other more highly educated persons speak French.

Religion

The Constitution guarantees freedom of religious worship. While church and state are legally separate, "the Evangelical Lutheran Church is the national church of Denmark, and as such is supported by the state." As in other Scandinavian countries, the overwhelming majority or about 97 percent of the Danish population associate themselves with the Evangelical Lutheran Church. About 1 percent belong to other Protestant Christian denominations. The state officially recognizes nine churches other than the Evangelical Lutheran—the Roman Catholic (27,000 members in the early 1960's), the Reformed, the Baptist (12,000 in 1968), the Methodist (5,000 in 1968), and the Jewish (6,000 in the early 1960's), and in Copenhagen the Churches of England, of Sweden (2,100 in 1968), and of Norway, and the Russian Orthodox. The ceremonies performed by the clergy of these nine have the same legal validity as those of the national church, which is not true for denominations such as Jehovah's Witnesses (12,000 members in 1968), Pentecostal (5,000 in 1968), Seventh Day Adventists (4,000 in 1968), and other, smaller congregations. Probably no more than 15,000 persons have no religious affiliation. In spite of the large memberships, however, only about 7 percent of all Danes attend church regularly. Although most church members are apathetic toward formal religious participation, over three-fourths of all Danes have their children baptized and confirmed in the church, and the large majority of weddings and funerals are church ceremonies.

The supreme authority of the church—contrary to the intention of the Constitution—rests with Parliament.[4] The state administers and supervises the affairs of the Evangelical Lutheran Church through the Ministry of Church Affairs. The Ministry levies the state tax on communicants for the maintenance of the national church and recommends the amount of direct state support that is granted annually for the purpose by Parliament. In fiscal 1965 the Ministry collected DKr142 million (US$20.6 million) by direct taxation, and Parliament granted it another DKr71 million (US$10.3 million). The Ministry indirectly in-

[4] The Constitution provides that the constitution of the National Church shall be settled by law. "This was meant to indicate a relatively independent status, with Church representation and constitution. Later, the provision was interpreted, contrary to its spirit, as meaning that the affairs of the National Church should be settled by legislation. Thus in reality Parliament has become the supreme ecclesiastical authority."—Denmark, an Official Handbook, p. 213.

fluences all other denominations by determining which ones will be recognized by the state and therefore receive tax support (from its communicants) and direct state aid. An aspirant religious body must fulfill the constitutional requirement of not being at variance with moral and public order, must have an "adequately educated clergy," and must provide reasonable assurance that it will be a permanent organization. In spiritual affairs the national church has no real head. The bishops, who also appoint the deans in their dioceses upon recommendations of the pastors, do make *de facto* rulings but these often do not acquire official status as church doctrine. The clergy of the national church are civil servants.

A millenium of exposure to Christianity and over 400 years of pervasive, unchallenged exposure to Lutheran Protestanism have strongly influenced the culture, outlook, and behavior of the Danes. National attitudes that appear to stem at least in part from the Protestant Christian ethic are belief in providence, in the essential worthiness of personal industry, and in a desire for material improvement. Frequently identified with Protestantism, particularly in northern Europe, is a well-developed sense of social responsibility or civic consciousness, and the way was paved in the 19th century for the extension of social justice and a national climate of opinion favorable to the evolution of the welfare state in the 20th century. Emphasis on the comprehensive social welfare programs so successfully instituted in the Scandinavian countries has proved compatible with the almost equal emphasis placed by Protestants on self reliance.

There are few known social antagonisms in Denmark stemming from religious beliefs. Open anti-Catholic sentiment is rare, although suspicion of the papacy and of the Roman Catholic hierarchy may linger among older Danes, notwithstanding the marked advances of ecumenical sentiment. Anti-Jewish feeling is not apparent. The small Jewish element is completely assimilated into Danish life and there are bitter memories of the Nazi German occupation force and its largely unsuccessful efforts to round up, deport, or execute the entire Danish Jewish population. These efforts were foiled with the help of the Danish population.

Chapter III. Social Factors

The Nature of the Society

Danish society is among the least hierarchical of all nations. Most of the population is incorporated in an amorphous middle class. The leveling of the society has come about in part because of the welfare state, which in itself is a reflection of the Danish character, with its accent on tolerance, accommodation, and group interest, and its extreme aversion to strong forms of competition and dependence. Extensive social welfare legislation, a tax structure which restricts high incomes, increased industrialization and education, and trade union activities have contributed to the narrowing of the spread between income groups. Both the lack of wealth within the country and the high taxes required for the social welfare programs limit the accumulation of wealth by an individual. Despite the foregoing, some class barriers persist, although the classes are not well defined nor are antagonisms between them pronounced.

Recognized factors determining social status are education, professional attainment, wealth, family, and occupation. Conforming to the European pattern, intellectual attainment and membership in respected occupations are more significant in fixing class status than is wealth. For example, a teacher is accorded greater status than is a skilled laborer, even though the income of the latter may be higher. The most common avenues for the penetration of class barriers are professional pursuits in the school system, the civil service, politics, and journalism.

Danish society is composed basically of the three usual major categories: (1) The upper class, consisting of the nobility, whose legal prerogatives were abolished in 1849, wealthy

businessmen, large-scale farmers, and a sprinkling of doctors, lawyers, and higher civil servants, constitutes less than 1 percent of the population. (2) The middle class accounts for over 85 percent; it includes within its three basic subdivisions (upper middle, middle, and lower middle) the great majority of professional people, skilled workers, and independent farmers. (3) The small lower class, largely confined to unskilled workers and farm laborers, accounts for the remaining 14 percent. Members of the lower middle and lower classes are more class conscious than their counterparts in the United States. Intermarriage between members of the lower class and those above is not common. Although there is at least as much social mobility in Denmark as in most other highly developed western societies, opportunities for advancement are still fewer than in the United States.

The extent to which some vestiges of class consciousness remains characteristic of most Danes is reflected in the widespread use of honorifics, even in ordinary conversation. The continuance of the monarchical institution and royal entourage, although essentially a unifying symbol, also may reflect popular acquiescence in an older hierarchical order. Some class consciousness is reflected also in telephone directory listings. As in Sweden, the title or occupation is listed before the given name. Consideration is being given, however, to conversion to the strictly alphabetical pattern customary in most other countries.

Education

Denmark has a literacy rate of over 99.9 percent. Since 1814, education has been compulsory for children between 7 and 14 years. After completing primary school, most young Danes continue their education for another 2–3 years beyond the compulsory period. Although matriculation still falls off sharply thereafter, the proportions of children attending postprimary classes at all levels have been increasing rapidly. In 1963–64 only 8 percent of the 18-year-olds and 80 percent of the 14-year-olds were still in school. By 1967–68 these percentages had increased to 10 and 91 percent, respectively, and by 1969, to 12.5 and 94 percent, respectively, as shown in the following tabulation:

Grade	Estimated age	Percent of age group	
		1967–68	1969
1–7	7–13	100.0	100.0
8	14	91.0	94.0
9	15	77.0	80.0
10	16	49.0	67.0
11	17	12.0	14.5
12	18	10.0	12.5

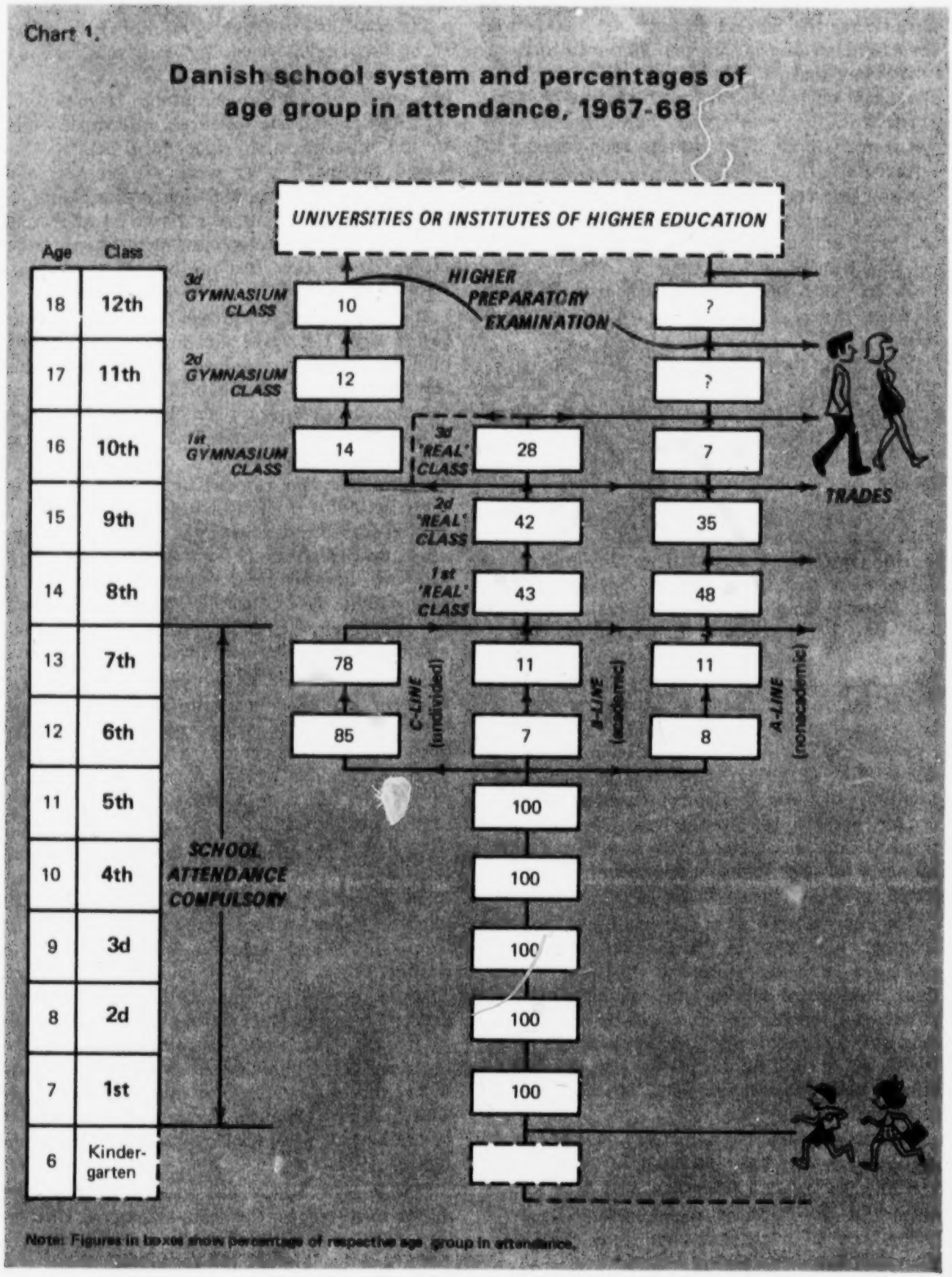
The basic framework for child education consists of a 7-year primary school; voluntary eighth, ninth, and 10th year classes; and Gymnasium, college-preparatory secondary education. Children receive the same basic education through the fifth grade. Beginning in the sixth and continuing through the seventh grade they may enter either the nonacademic ("a"-line) track or the academic ("b"-line) track, or may remain in the undivided continuation program ("c"-line), which most of them do. (See chart 1.)

In the eighth, ninth, and 10th classes, instruction follows one of two patterns: (1) One follows the nonacademic, "a"-line track; instruction is given in occupationally slanted as well as general subjects. A number of optional subjects also have been introduced along with the compulsory ones, partly to facilitate the transition to practical work in a subsequent occupation for those pupils who lack either the desire or the ability to study further. One special line of instruction leads up to a technical preparatory examination which gives access to short technical courses. (2) Those pupils on the "b" or "c" line whom the schools consider suitable may go on to the examination division (*"realafdeling"* or "real" classes); on termination school-leaving examination is taken. Passing this examination enables a pupil to advance to various forms of higher education, and also is required for a number of positions in adult life.

Admission to Gymnasium normally takes place after the first 2 years of *realafdeling* and is determined partly by results of special written tests in Danish and mathematics and partly by recommendations of the *realafdeling* concerning the pupil's aptitude for Gymnasium instruction. Admission also may take place after completion of a third year in a *realafdeling*. Gymnasiums provide a continuation of general instruction but are divided into various lines. In the first year the program is divided into two main lines—language and mathe-

Chart 1.

Danish school system and percentages of age group in attendance, 1967-68



Note: Figures in boxes show percentage of respective age group in attendance.

matics; for the 2d and 3d years of instruction the language line is further split into modern languages, classical languages, and civics, and the mathematics line into mathematics–physics, natural science, and civics. Throughout the 3 years about half of all lessons are common to both lines.

Adult and regular school education exist side by side. Folk high schools, agricultural schools, and home economics schools are voluntary, nonvocational schools for general adult education. In 1967–68 and 1968–69 about 12,000 students were registered each year in these schools.

Vocational training is extensive in Denmark. The two major programs are the training of apprentices leading to certification as journeymen, and the training of unskilled workers for the acquisition of skills designated as "semiskilled."

The Apprenticeship Act of 1956 guarantees both labor and management a decisive influence in the training of apprentices. A joint committee composed of four representatives each of the Danish Employers' Confederation (DEC) and of the Danish Federation of Trade Unions (LO) has been set up for each of about 160 trades. Each committee draws up plans, which include the number of apprentices to be accepted each year, and length of the apprenticeship. The various trade committees are under the authority of an autonomous Apprenticeship Council, also composed of employer and worker representatives. The Apprenticeship Council, in consultation with the joint committees, establishes the training regulations.

The apprenticeship period, usually of 4 years, is spent primarily on the job, but increasing emphasis is being given to off-the-job full-time training in schools and other formal instructional institutions for periods lasting as long as 6 months. Indentured apprentices numbered about 23,200 in 1968, and technical schools were training some 52,310 apprentices in 1968–69.

The Vocational Training Act of 1960 was designed to provide the type of vocational training for unskilled workers as might be required in the light of technological developments and labor market conditions. Training is available to any person who is employed or seeks employment in occupational fields covered by the courses. Training is normally available to persons over 18 years of age, although in some instances persons under 18 may qualify. Applicants are given an allowance equal to the unemployment insurance benefit they would receive if they were eligible for such assistance. Workers who leave their jobs to take up such training are given an additional 50 percent of the unemployment insurance benefit, but in no case can the benefit equal more than 90 percent of the worker's earnings.

As with the apprenticeship program, training of unskilled workers is largely the responsibility of the major employer and worker organizations. Overall responsibility for administration of the program rests with a 15-member Training Board, composed of a chairman and seven representatives each of employers and workers. Branch committees for each trade, composed of an equal number of employers' and workers' representatives, examine training needs and establish the necessary coursework. Currently, 200 courses are given, covering 74 occupational fields. In 1967–68, the total number of trainees was estimated at 11,000–12,000; many take more than one course.

In addition to this program for unskilled workers, a similar program is offered for skilled workers who want to learn about the latest developments in their crafts. Courses for about 30 trades are available to persons over 18 years of age. In 1967–68, a total of 5,500 persons took advantage of such training.

The 1969 Retraining Act is aimed at helping those in need of "occupational readjustment." Such persons must be (1) unemployed, (2) likely to become unemployed, or (3) forced by technological and occupational developments to change their occupation wholly or in part. The act applies particularly to "self-employed persons in agriculture or retail trade who have to give up their trade or business owing to the trend of developments," as well as to persons who want to re-enter the labor market after several years' absence. No data on the number of trainees in the program have yet been published.

The higher education system includes two major universities, the state-supported University of Copenhagen, which was founded in 1479, and the University of Arhus, which was

inaugurated in 1928 as a college and achieved full university status in 1934. The latter is a semiprivate institution; its constitution and regulations are subject to the approval of the Ministry of Education and it is heavily subsidized by state funds. Both are "complete" universities and each has five colleges: theology, law and economics, medicine, philosophy (the humanities), and mathematics–natural sciences. To meet the growing demands for higher education, a third university, the University of Odense, was established in 1966; it has colleges of medicine and of the humanities. Supplementing the three universities are 12 important specialized colleges or institutions of higher learning, each covering a particular field, such as dentistry, pharmacy, engineering, economics, library science, fine arts, music, etc. Enrollment and graduates of these 15 schools in 1969–70 were as follows:

	Enrollees	*Graduates*
University of Copenhagen	21,907	1,101
University of Århus	9,666	447
University of Odense	908	3
Technical College of Denmark	2,871	379
Danish Engineering Academy of Copenhagen	1,216	220
Danish Engineering Academy of Ålborg	339	57
Royal Veterinary and Agricultural College	1,434	219
Dental College of Copenhagen	806	126
Dental College of Århus	485	77
Danish School of Pharmacy	587	89
Copenhagen School of Commerce and Business Economics	4,979	886
Århus School of Commerce and Business Economics	1,634	303
Royal Academy of Fine Arts	1,592	[1] 103
Royal Academy of Music	302	63
Jutland Academy of Music	146	13

[1] All in architecture.

Doctoral degrees were granted in 1969–70 by the Universities of Copenhagen (35), Århus (15), and Odense (3); the Technical College (4); the Royal Veterinary and Agricultural College (5); the Dental College of Copenhagen (2); and the Danish School of Pharmacy (2).

The Technical College grants a diploma of civil engineer (*civilingeniør*) after satisfactory completion of a 5–5 1/2 year program of study, and since 1953, a degree of technical licentiate (*licentiatus technicus*) to civil engineers who have completed a piece of scientific research and passed special tests in a specially arranged 2–3 years' course of study. The two Engineering Academies confer the title of academy engineer (*akademiingeniør*) after a 3 1/2–4-year course; instruction is distinctly technical in aim, geared primarily to students who wish to work in production and operation. Study at all three institutions is divided into four branches—chemical, electrical, construction, and mechanical engineering; entrance requires passing a "university entrance examination, mathematics–physics line, or equivalent education."

Advanced technical education is also provided by nine engineering schools (*Teknika*) located throughout the country (at Ålborg, Århus, Copenhagen, Ejsberg, Elsinore, Haslev, Horsens, Odense, and Sonderborg), which confer the diploma of technological engineer (*teknikumingenior*); graduation is based on a final examination at the end of 3 years of study. Entrance requirements into one of the five branches of study—electro-, building, mechanical engineering, production, and ship technology—are some practical training, and either an entrance examination or the university entrance examination with mathematics. The practical training may consist of either apprenticeship training in a relevant subject or 1 year's attendance at a workshop school followed by 15 months of practical experience. Enrollment in 1969–70 was about 4,400; graduates numbered 917.

There is a wide range of other technical training courses at many levels and in many specialized subjects at two technological institutes (*teknologiske institutter*), in Copenhagen and Århus; at technical schools (*tekniske skoler*), which in 1969–70 numbered 55, in all areas; and at some other specialized schools. "They include courses for advancing an already achieved technical level, leading up to authorization examinations; training in supervisory work; work study; management training; etc. . . ." In 1969–70 the institutes provided day or evening courses, ambulant courses, vocational lectures, or correspondence courses, to 37,588 enrollees. The technical schools train building constructors; building, electronic, chemical, laboratory, and engine technicians; and laboratory assistants. Enrollment in these courses in 1969–70 was 16,325 students plus 50,134 apprentices; graduates numbered 2,305. Certification usually requires satisfactory completion of 20–60 weeks' training plus 1 year or more of practical training before or during the course.

A large number of other schools and institutes serve students who attend for less than 4 full years (in many cases much less). They specialize in various fields and in most cases grant certificates or diplomas. The fields of specialization include teacher training, physical education, brewing, home economics, midwifery, and social work.

Living Conditions

The average Dane is well clothed, well fed, and well housed. He spends approximately 10 percent of his income on clothing and footwear and 25 percent on food. Quality of clothing, which consists largely of woolens, is very good, and the quantity available to the average Dane is sufficient for the fairly frequent changes that are customary in this sanitation-conscious society. In average daily caloric intake (3,330 in 1964–65) and percentage of food that is of animal origin (44 percent), Denmark ranks second only to New Zealand among the best fed countries in the world. In variety and excellence of cuisine, the Dane comes as close to the favored Frenchman as any other European. He eats more rich foods—meats, butterfats, and cheese—than any of his Scandinavian neighbors. Consumption of meat and fish, cheese, milk, and eggs has been rising, primarily at the expense of cereal products and potatoes. Under Danish law, vitamins must be added to widely used and inexpensive foods such as margarine, oatmeal, wheat cereals, and rye and wheat flour. Although the Danish diet contains liberal amounts of vegetable starches and animal proteins, it is relatively low in green vegetables and fruits.

Denmark has been considerably more successful than most other European countries in overcoming the housing shortage caused by World War II. Although the Dane spends less than 15 percent of his income on housing, his accommodations in terms of number of persons per room, electricity, and bathing and toilet facilities are the best in Europe, except for Switzerland. The number of persons per dwelling in 1965 was estimated at 2.93. The number of persons per room averages less than 1. Urban and rural electrification is virtually universal. According to an official 10-percent sampling of the 1965 census data, practically all urban dwellings had either electric or gas cooking facilities, about 91 percent had flush toilets, and about two-thirds had baths and central heating, as shown in the following tabulation:

	Electric or gas cooking facilities	*Baths*	*Flush toilets*	*Central heating*
All Denmark	98.7	63.4	91.0	66.7
Copenhagen	99.9	67.0	99.0	68.0
Other urban areas[1]	99.5	68.0	97.1	76.4
Rural areas	96.1	52.8	73.1	51.1

[1] Having more than 1,000 inhabitants.

Although considerable building has been done since World War II (so that their facilities are fairly modern), almost 25 percent of all dwellings are over 70 years old. Of the 1,578,400 dwellings in 1965, 62.3 percent were built before 1941; 24.5 percent were built during 1941–60, and 9.7 percent during 1961–65. Data are not available for 1966, but during 1967–69 a total of 138,900 new dwellings were completed and 61,800 were under construction. About 3.5 percent of the dwelling units in 1965 were of one room; 77.2 percent had two–four rooms. Some 75.4 percent in Copenhagen were apartments, primarily of two–three rooms, compared with 45.9 percent in other urban areas. In rural areas, the three–four room single-family house predominates; 41.3 percent of the dwelling units in 1965 were farm houses and 49.3 percent were one-family houses. About 47 percent of all dwellings in 1965 were owner occupied.

Houses generally are made of concrete or brick; wood is scarce and normally is used only for trim and decoration. Thatch is still used for roofing on some rural houses. Local authorities are empowered to prevent slum development and are required to have a town plan regulating the type and use of buildings and building density. An attractive feature of the larger Danish urban areas is the garden colony, featuring, on the outskirts of town, summer cottages with small cultivable plots of ground.

Although Denmark has handled its housing shortage much better than most European countries, a marked shortage still remains, created in large measure by the migration of farm workers and their families to urban centers. The shortage is especially pronounced for young couples, who are often forced to pay rent out of proportion to their earnings.

Transportation and communications factors pose no serious problems regarding workers' attendance or performance. Public intra- and inter-urban rail and bus service is frequent and of high standard, and fares are low. The traditional bicycle is increasingly giving way to motorized transportation, and overloaded streets and highways result in some inconveniences during rush hours. In 1967–68 there was one private automobile for each 5 members of the population, one bicycle for each 2.5 persons, and one motorcycle for every 85 persons (cf. one for every 40 in 1960); one telephone for each 3.2 (cf. for every 2 in the United States), a ratio exceeded in Europe only by Sweden, Switzerland, and Iceland; and one radio for every three and a TV for every four persons.

Health Conditions

The health of the Danish worker is generally good. Most epidemic-prone diseases have been eradicated. However, the maritime climate, high relative humidity, and lack of sunshine contribute to a comparatively high incidence of respiratory illness and are unfavorable for persons subject to asthma and rheumatism. Common colds, influenza, and other respiratory illnesses, the most common diseases, result in some worker absenteeism and lowered work performance. Throat infections, according to official statistics on diseases reported by doctors, usually lead the list (with 207,529 cases reported in 1968), followed by acute respiratory illness (202,882) and influenza (175,644). However, influenza is of greater seriousness to persons of working age: Approximately 60 percent of the influenza cases in 1968 were among persons age 15–64, compared with 40 percent for throat infections and 20 percent for acute respiratory illness. The 1968 rates for all three illnesses were considerably higher than the 1963–67 averages (excluding 1965, for which no data are available), although the incidence of influenza was well below the 290,000 reported in 1962 and the 205,089 for 1966.

As in other highly developed countries, the principal causes of death are heart and circulatory ailments and cancer. In the working age group, about 27 percent of all male deaths and 43 percent of all female deaths were caused by cancer in 1968. Among this age group the numbers and proportions of deaths from heart disease and arteriosclerosis increased from 27 percent in 1967 to 29 percent in 1968 for males, and from 12 percent to 14 percent for females.

Approximately 97 percent of the population receive hospitalization and medical benefits as members of health insurance societies; the other 3 percent, for various reasons, have elected to forego free hospital and medical services. (See General Social Insurance System.) The Danish National Assistance Act of 1960 authorizes medical service for every citizen who is unable to provide for himself. Medical care facilities, adequately staffed with qualified medical personnel, are distributed evenly throughout the country, and sufficient medical supplies are readily available. Each county has available to every citizen one or more general hospitals within easy traveling distance. Most hospitals are run by local municipal and county authorities, but they often receive state support. In 1966–67 there were 269 hospitals, sanitoria, clinics, and nursing homes. These had a total of 46,061 beds, or about 9.6 beds (cf. 8.7 in the United States in 1965) per 1,000 population, distributed as follows:

	Number of units	*Number of beds*
Total	269	46,061
General hospitals	134	29,001
Private clinics	5	84
Infirmaries	76	3,691
Tuberculosis sanatoriums, etc.	40	1,488
Mental hospitals	12	10,013
Nursing homes in Copenhagen	2	1,784

Denmark is well supplied with physicians, whose medical education is of high quality. The Universities of Copenhagen and of Århus each has a medical college, and several of the hospitals in these two cities are teaching hospitals associated with the universities. In 1967, physicians numbered 6,825, or about 1 physician for each 706 persons (cf. 1:671 in the United States in 1965), one of the world's highest. Over half were employed by hospitals, about one-third were general practioners, and most of the rest were divided equally between specialists in private practice and doctors engaged in scientific, administrative, social, or preventive work. To become a specialist requires 6–10 years of postgraduate training. No

general practitioner and very few specialists in private practice have hospital privileges. The physician either treats the patient in his office or refers him to the hospital, where the staff physician takes over. Dentists in 1967 numbered 1,840, or about 1 for each 2,625 persons (cf. 1:1,786 in the United States in 1965). The nation's two dental colleges in Copenhagen and Århus in 1967–68 and 1968–69 had a combined annual enrollment of about 1,300 students, and graduated over 190 a year. Most doctors and dentists speak English.

Hospital nurses numbered 14,235 and public health nurses 498 in 1967. A total of 9,104 were employed in the 114 municipal and county hospitals. In the mid-1960's Denmark had 32 hospital nursing schools approved by the National Health Service, plus a postgraduate school of nursing education at Århus University. Midwives numbered 604 in 1967. They are trained at a special school in Copenhagen, a state institution over 200 years old, which usually has an enrollment of just over 100, and graduates about 30 each year. The 3-year training course includes practical experience in hospital wards.

Women and Children

Although Danish society is traditionally patriarchal, with the woman's role preferably confined to the home, approximately 35 percent of all females, and over 45 percent of those age 14 years and over, are now economically active. Females constituted close to 38 percent of the estimated 1969 labor force. About 45 percent of all married or separated women were economically active; about 60 percent of all working females are or have been married. Although most of the economically active married women worked outside the home, about 14 percent of the total female labor force were "assisting wives," mostly wives of independent farmers or tradesmen assisting their husbands in their businesses. About 4 percent were self-employed, 46 percent were salaried employees, and the remainder were wage earners.

Increased urbanization, the high cost of the welfare state, and the simple desire for greater material wealth, have prompted an increasing number of women to enter the labor force. In addition, a growing number of crêches, nurseries, and kindergartens, many of which are subsidized by national and local authorities and run either by the local authorities or charitable foundations or by employers, free mothers of young children from the responsibilities of child care during the workday. The number of job opportunities for women has been increasing, although Danish employers in general still tend to think that men perform better than women and some occupations remain closed to females. Women still are discriminated against in terms of wages and salaries (although Denmark has ratified the 1951 ILO Convention on Equal Remuneration), types of occupations, training opportunities, and even labor union attitudes. Unions actually negotiate separate rates of pay for males and females; the separation is accentuated by the existence of a Women's General Workers Union. However, women are becoming more aware and more assertive in their role in the economy and the society. Their demands are growing for better jobs and job opportunities, for better pay, for improved training, and for improved child-care facilities, the quantity and quality of which varies considerably.

Approximately 31 percent of the 1969 female labor force were in administration and the professions, over half of whom were employed in the health service and social welfare institutions. About 15 percent were in other service industries; 21 percent in manufacturing (over half in textiles, clothing, and footwear, and in food, beverages, and tobacco); 19 percent in commerce (mostly in retail trade); 8 percent in agriculture; and 4 percent in transportation and communications. In several occupations females outnumber males. Excluding all "assisting wives," in 1969 women constituted 98–100 percent of all seamstresses, char workers, telephone operators, and bookbinding workers; about 87 percent of both health (practically all nurses and dental technicians) and catering personnel (waitresses, kitchen workers, etc.); 66 percent of all clerical employees; and 52–53 percent of all teachers, shop assistants, and photographers.

Legislation prohibits the employment of children under age 14 who have not completed their compulsory education, except after school for no more than 2 hours, as messengers, in delivery service, or in other light work (Law No. 226 of June 11, 1954, as amended). Pro-

tective legislation for minors is extensive. No person under 18 may work from 6 p.m. to 6 a.m., with a few exceptions, such as in the baking, dairy, and service industries, and to some extent in agriculture.

The overall policy of the Danish Government is to foster the education of all young people to the maximum of their ability and desire to acquire useful education. Over the years many attempts have been nade to increase compulsory education beyond the present 7 years—to the eighth, ninth, and even 10th years—and to increase the minimum age of employment from the present 14 years to 15 or 16. Solid resistance has been met from the farm bloc, but according to some predictions the change may be forthcoming in the early 1970's. In the meantime, it is the policy of the Government to provide protection to preadult workers with regard to their physical and psychical well-being, not only in the form of various restrictions on the number of hours worked and kinds of work for which young people can be used, but also in guaranteeing free time and special holiday benefits. Within 4 weeks of engaging a person under 18, the employer is required by law to assure, and to pay for, a medical examination for him. If the young person is retained in a particular job, the physician's certificate must be cleared by the district inspector.

In 1965, of the 486,220 young people age 14–19, a total of 280,520 (including 24,520 female domestic servants and unpaid family helpers), or 58 percent, were economically active. Of the 412,577 age 15–19, a total of 270,555, or 65.6 percent, were economically active, so that about 10,000 children age 14, or slightly less than 14 percent of the children in this age group, were in the labor force in 1965. The 1965 data show a drop from 1960, when 70.9 percent of persons age 15–19 were economically active, and later data indicate a continuation of this downward trend. On the basis of the 1965 census data, the Danish National Institute of Social Research reported that of the young people age 14–20, some 42 percent were full-time students, 20 percent were working full time, 28 percent were receiving apprenticeship or on-the-job training, and the remaining 10 percent were engaged primarily in housework.

Chapter IV. Manpower Resources

Population and Labor Supply

The population in 1970 was estimated at about 4.9 million. Average annual growth over the past two decades has been at a rate of about 0.7 percent, one of the lowest in Western Europe.

The population is largely urban. Approximately 62 percent live in cities and towns, including their suburbs. In 1965 (latest data available), about 55 percent of the total population resided in towns and cities with populations of over 10,000. Over one-fourth (1.4 million in 1968) live in Copenhagen and its suburbs. Other important urban areas are Århus (191,506 inhabitants in 1968), Odense (154,454), and Ålborg (129,695).

Population densities are highest in the northeastern third of Zealand, and lowest in western and southern Jutland, where, in April 1970, the four counties (*amtskommune*) of Viborg, Ringkøbing, Ribe, and Søderjyllands had only 128–163 persons a square mile. Copenhagen and Frederiksberg communes (*kommune*) together had a density of over 20,479 inhabitants per square mile. (See accompanying map.)

Denmark, like other Scandinavian countries, has a relatively high proportion of older people. (See table 2.) The population has aged considerably over the past three decades, as a result of declining birth rates and better health care for older people. Probably no more than 8–10 other countries have as large a percentage (12.2 percent in 1970) of their populations in the group age 65 years and over, and even fewer have as low a proportion (23.3 percent in 1970) of children age 14 and younger.

At the beginning of 1970, Denmark had 1,018 females for every 1,000 males. The number of males exceeds that of females in all

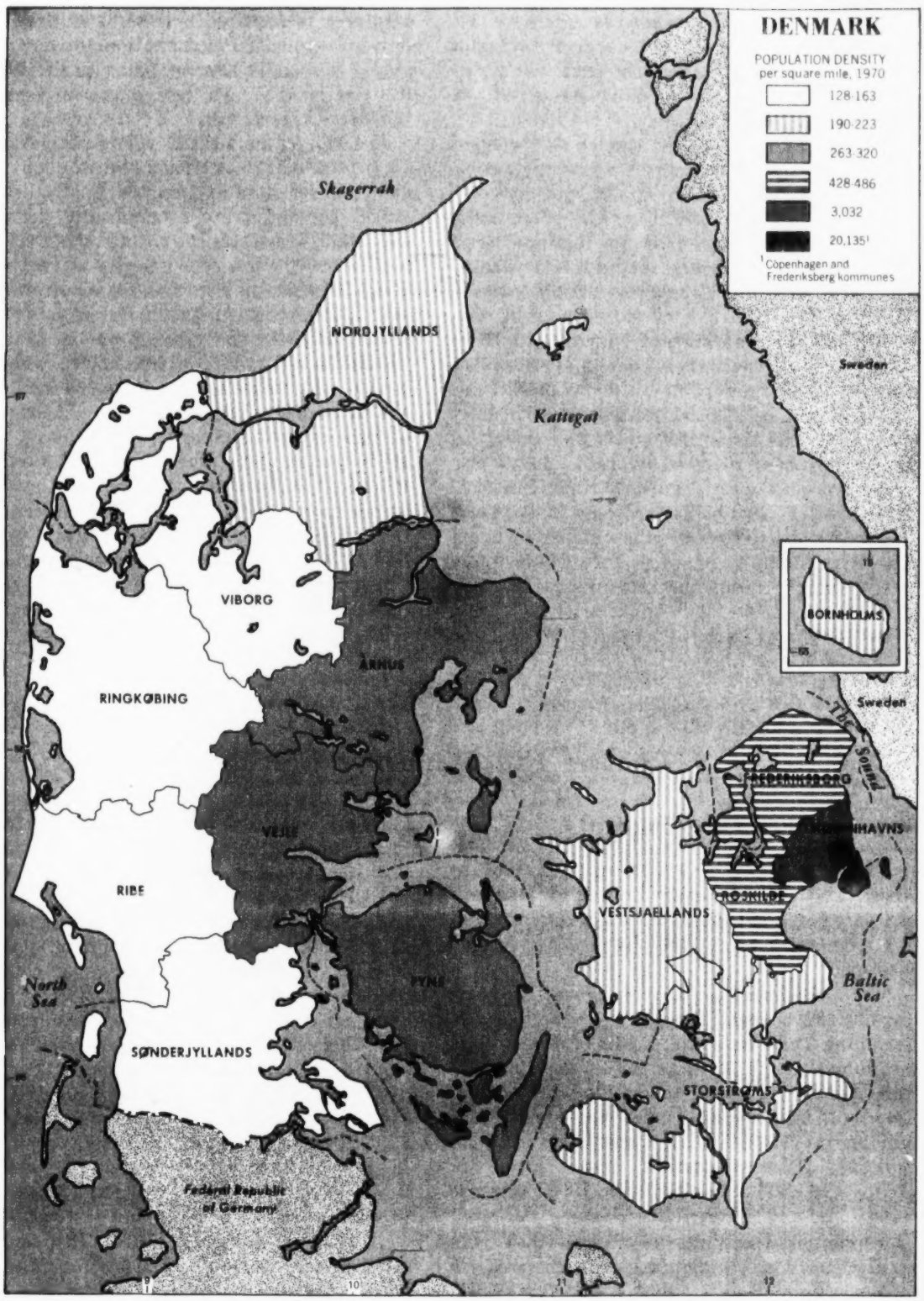

DENMARK
POPULATION DENSITY
per square mile, 1970
128-163
190-223
263-320
428-486
3,032
20,135[1]
[1] Copenhagen and Frederiksberg kommunes
Skagerrak
Kattegat
Sweden
NORDJYLLANDS
VIBORG
ÅRHUS
RINGKØBING
VEJLE
RIBE
FYNS
SØNDERJYLLANDS
BORNHOLMS
VESTSJAELLANDS
ROSKILDE
HAVNS
The Sound
North Sea
Baltic Sea
STORSTRØMS
Federal Republic of Germany
8
9
10
11
12

TABLE 2. POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE, BY AGE AND SEX, APRIL–MAY 1970

Age group	Population (in thousands)			Labor force					
				Number (in thousands)			Percent of age group		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	4,920.9	2,442.6	2,478.3	2,389.8	1,469.3	920.5	48.6	60.2	37.1
Under 5	389.4	199.9	189.5	...	...	...	...	...	...
5–9	390.3	199.6	190.7	...	...	...	...	...	...
10–14	367.3	188.3	179.0	...	...	...	...	...	...
15–19	372.1	191.0	181.1	168.3	93.0	75.3	45.2	48.7	41.6
20–24	417.3	214.7	202.6	319.3	175.2	144.1	76.5	81.6	71.1
25–34	671.4	342.5	328.9	542.0	336.8	205.2	80.7	98.3	62.4
35–44	564.4	281.4	283.0	463.5	279.3	184.2	82.0	99.3	65.1
45–54	594.1	293.2	300.9	463.5	277.8	185.7	78.0	94.7	61.7
55–64	552.0	267.0	285.0	343.8	237.1	106.7	62.3	88.8	37.4
65–74	387.4	174.6	212.8	89.4	70.1	19.3	23.1	40.1	9.1
75 and over	215.2	90.4	124.8	...	...	...	...	...	...

NOTE: Population figures are for May 1; labor force, for April 29.

SOURCE: Denmark, Danish Statistical Office, *Statistik Årbog 1971* (Statistical Yearbook 1971), pp. 42, 43, and 62.

5-year age groups up through that age 30–34 years; females outnumber males thereafter.

As of April 29, 1970, the labor force was an estimated 2,389,800, or 48.6 percent of the population, compared with 47.1 percent in 1965 and 45.0 percent in 1960. The increase in the rate of labor force participation [5] results primarily from the fact that more and more females are entering the labor force. The participation rate of women increased from 27.9 percent in 1960 to 30.8 percent in 1965, and to approximately 37.1 percent in 1970. The male labor force participation rate, on the other hand, declined over the 10-year period, from 63.7 percent in 1960 to 60.2 percent in 1970, primarily because of lower rates among those age 15–24, who were continuing their education longer.

As the pattern of the economy has changed, marked shifts have come in the distribution of the labor force by branch of economic activity, the most notable being the growth (from 10.4 percent in 1950 to 27.9 percent in April 1970) in the proportions engaged in services, and the decline (from 27.0 percent in 1950 to 11.1 percent in 1970) in those in agriculture. (See chart 2.) In 1970, about 504,300, or almost 76 percent, of the 665,800 engaged in services were in public administration and the professions, especially in education, health, and welfare. Iron and metal products manufacturing industries employed about 26 percent of all workers in manufacturing in 1970, followed by food, beverage, and tobacco manufacturing, with 16 percent. (See table 3.)

[5] The labor force participation rate is the percentage of the population or of a segment of the population that is economically active.

TABLE 3. LABOR FORCE BY BRANCH OF ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND INDUSTRY, APRIL 29, 1970

[In thousands]

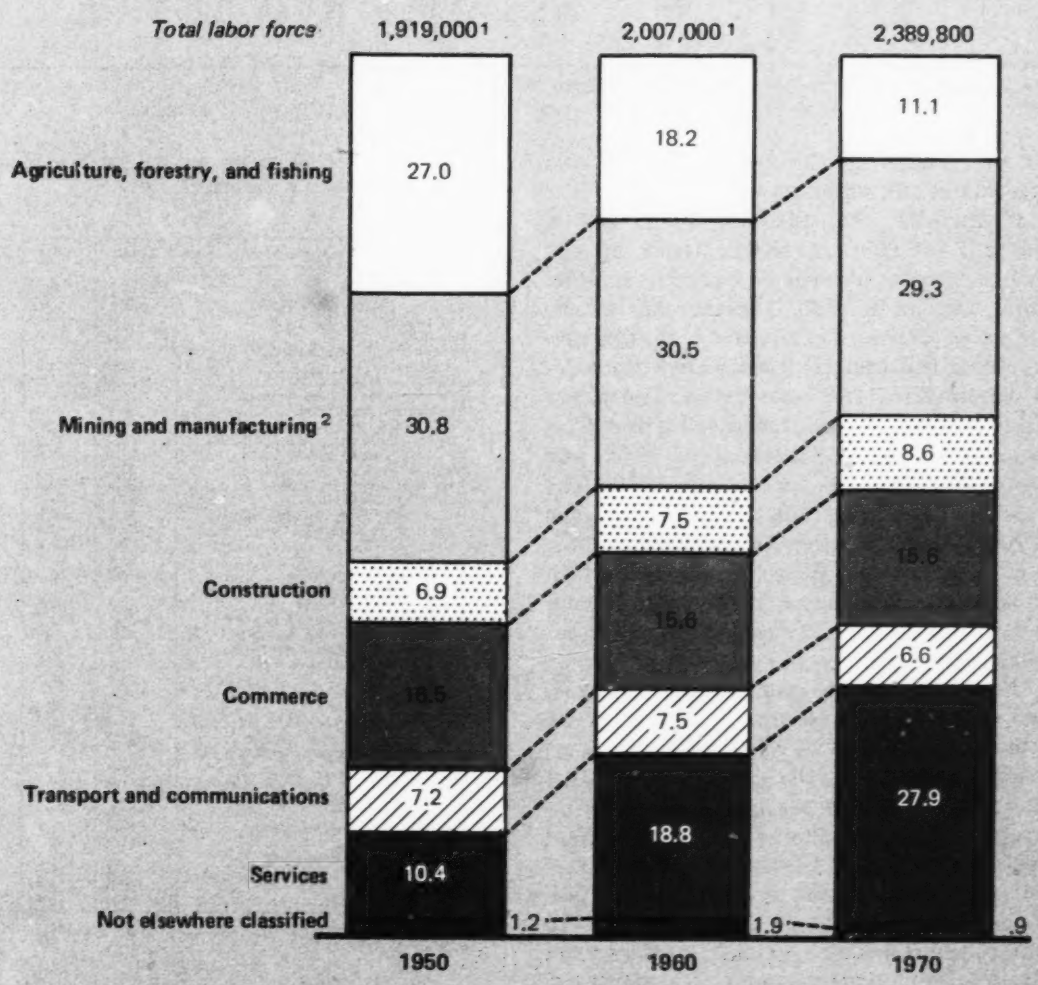
Branch of economic activity and industry	Total	Male	Female
All industries	2,389.8	1,469.3	920.5
Agriculture, fishing, and forestry	265.5	191.5	74.0
Agriculture	211.0	147.8	63.2
Fishing	13.0	12.4	.6
Forestry and other agricultural services	41.5	31.3	10.2
Manufacturing	700.3	507.0	193.3
Food, beverages, and tobacco	114.2	69.7	44.5
Textile, clothing, and footwear	78.1	21.6	51.5
Wood, cork, and furniture	54.3	46.3	8.0
Paper, printing, and publishing	57.5	39.9	17.6
Tannery and chemical	37.1	26.3	10.8
Stone, clay, and glass	29.9	25.2	4.7
Iron and metal products	182.5	150.8	31.7
Transport equipment	84.6	79.4	5.2
Other, including public utilities	67.1	47.8	19.3
Building and construction	206.6	194.4	12.2
Commerce	373.8	200.8	173.0
Wholesale trade	113.8	81.6	32.2
Retail trade	190.2	83.4	106.8
Financial institutions, insurance, and real property	69.8	35.8	34.0
Transportation and communication	157.3	122.7	34.6
Railways, tramways, and buses	25.7	22.6	3.1
Haulage contractor, messenger services	37.4	31.2	6.2
Shipping, loading, and unloading	29.2	27.1	2.1
Telephone, post, and telegraph services	43.2	25.9	17.3
Other transport services	21.8	15.9	5.9
Administration and professions	504.3	194.6	309.7
Public administration, police, and armed forces	108.5	68.4	39.0
Education, libraries, and church	131.9	60.1	77.8
Health service, social welfare institutions	200.9	29.6	171.3
Other professional activities	63.0	36.5	26.5
Other services	161.5	44.7	116.8
Entertainment, hotel, and restaurant	65.3	26.3	39.0
Other services	96.2	18.4	77.8
Conscripts and not elsewhere classified	20.5	13.6	6.9

SOURCE: Denmark, Danish Statistical Office, *Statistik Årbog 1971* (Statistical Yearbook 1971), p. 60.

The occupational structure of the labor force also reflects the changing pattern of the economy. The trends apparent from data for 1960–65 (latest available) have undoubtedly continued. The most significant of these is the unusually high growth rate in the numbers of professional, technical, and clerical workers, and the decline in the number of farmers. By 1965, clerical workers accounted for 10.5 per-

Chart 2.

Distribution of the labor force by branch of economic activity, 1950, 1960, and 1970



[1] Excludes assisting wives and domestic servants.
[2] Includes public utilities (both production and distribution).

cent, and professional, technical, and related workers for 9.5 percent of the labor force, as a result of 30-percent increases in their numbers. However, the largest segments of the labor force were still the group classified as craftsmen, production-process workers, and workers not elsewhere classified, which continued to comprise about 32 percent (despite an increase of about 47,000 in their numbers, or about 10 percent), and the farmer, fisherman, hunter, logger, and related worker group, which accounted for 14.7 percent in 1965, as shown in the tabulation below:

	1960	*1965*
Total	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, and related workers	7.8	9.5
Administrative, executive, and managerial workers	1.7	1.6
Clerical workers	8.8	10.5
Sales workers	9.8	10.1
Farmers, fishermen, hunters, loggers, and related workers	17.7	14.6
Workers in transport and communications	6.5	6.2
Craftsmen, production process workers, and workers not elsewhere classified	32.2	32.0
Service, sport, and recreation workers	11.8	11.1
Workers not classifiable by occupation	3.1	3.6
Members of the armed forces	.6	.8

By 1965, women outnumbered men in professional and technical occupations, in clerical work, and in service, sport, and recreation occupations. (See table 4.) There were significantly more female than male nurses; teachers, in schools and kindergartens; unskilled workers in the food, beverage, tobacco, textile, and clothing, and electro-mechanical industries; and laundry workers and cleaning and kitchen personnel. (See table 5.) As of April 1970, the largest single groups of female workers were salaried clerical and shop workers, "assisting wives" (family workers), and unskilled char workers. (See table 6.)

TABLE 4. STRUCTURE OF THE ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE POPULATION, SEPTEMBER 27, 1965

[In thousands]

Occupational groups	Both sexes	Male	Female
Total	2,251.8	1,487.6	764.2
Professional, technical, and related workers	214.8	105.7	109.1
Administrative, executive, and managerial workers	35.5	30.4	5.1
Clerical workers	236.9	88.0	148.9
Sales workers	227.5	130.3	97.2
Farmers, fishermen, hunters, loggers, and related workers	328.6	272.6	56.0
Workers in transport and communications	138.5	125.4	13.1
Craftsmen, production process workers, and workers not elsewhere classified	720.9	589.1	131.8
Service, sport, and recreation workers	250.0	56.4	193.6
Workers not classifiable by occupation	80.4	71.2	9.2
Members of the armed forces	18.7	18.5	.2

TABLE 5. LABOR FORCE BY OCCUPATION AND SEX, SEPTEMBER 27, 1965

Occupation	Total	Male	Female
Persons employed in trade and industry	2,198,629	1,487,575	711,054
Self employed	403,975	361,501	42,474
In agriculture	163,401	157,341	6,060
In gardening	7,535	7,214	321
In fisheries	5,130	5,107	23
In manufacturing	53,924	49,286	4,638
In building and construction	29,454	29,275	179
In wholesale trade	15,196	14,514	682
In retail trade	59,636	46,506	13,130
In transport	18,766	18,332	434
In professions	23,288	18,052	5,236
In other service industries	21,936	11,846	10,090
Other selfemployed	5,709	4,028	1,681
Assisting wives	80,368	.....	80,368
In agriculture	44,073	.....	44,073
In retail trade	15,629	.....	15,629
In other industries	20,666	.....	20,666
Salaried employees	699,781	364,030	335,751
In agriculture	6,793	6,651	142
Administrative staff in central and local government	8,503	7,527	976
Teacher in school and kindergarten	45,354	20,750	24,604
Military personnel	18,695	18,509	186
Doctor, dentist, veterinary surgeon	5,676	4,216	1,460
Nurse, etc.	58,564	3,075	55,489
Policeman, customs officer, etc.	14,422	14,116	306
Functionary of the Danish State Railways	28,806	27,724	1,082
Employee of bank, etc.	18,865	11,304	7,561
Telephone service personnel	8,215	218	7,997
Office personnel	218,008	76,659	141,349
Shop personnel	143,051	76,032	67,019
Technician	82,256	66,990	15,266
In sea and air transport	10,844	10,110	734
Other employees	31,729	20,149	11,580
Skilled workers	326,642	309,149	17,493
Gardener	7,799	7,433	366
Dairyman	4,144	4,140	4
Butcher	11,265	11,126	139
Baker	8,589	8,427	162
Skilled tobacco worker	1,321	636	685
Tailor	2,781	2,481	300
Boot and shoe operative	3,276	1,954	1,322
Saddler, furrier, etc.	1,349	862	487
Joiner	22,401	22,324	77
Upholsterer	2,611	2,585	26
Graphic industries	16,086	15,673	413
Glass and ceramics industry	1,128	902	226
Smith	35,257	35,192	65
Mechanic	44,052	43,988	64
Car mechanic	34,633	34,575	58
Moulder	1,417	1,414	3
Goldsmith	1,781	1,565	216
Boatbuilder	1,925	1,925	0
Coachmaker	1,075	1,075	.....
Fitter	6,080	6,076	4
Dental technician	1,134	306	828
Watchmaker	946	928	18
Bricklayer	18,365	18,310	55
Carpenter	22,702	22,657	45
Painter	17,287	16,819	468
Glazier	1,010	992	18
Plumber	7,959	7,941	18
Electrician	18,107	18,065	42
Cook	3,567	3,475	92
Waiter	5,525	5,503	22
Hairdresser	12,197	2,564	9,633
Photographer	2,290	1,262	1,028
Other skilled workers	6,583	5,974	609
Unskilled workers	687,863	452,895	234,968
Agricultural worker	77,980	75,495	2,485
Horticultural worker	8,023	5,521	2,502
Forester	3,205	3,141	64
Fisherman	8,725	8,661	64
Seamstress	28,394	2	28,392
In foodstuff, beverage, and tobacco industries	43,698	20,628	23,070
In textile and clothing industries	22,528	7,725	14,803
In wood industry	16,287	13,811	2,476
In paper and graphic industries	13,780	6,127	7,653
In chemical industry	12,355	9,023	3,332
In stone, clay, and glass industries	17,381	15,359	2,022
In iron, metal, and engineering industries	32,633	26,952	5,681
In electromechanical industry	14,081	6,035	8,046
In transport industry	9,534	9,248	286
Other factory workers	39,881	27,925	11,956
In building and construction	61,427	61,248	179
Sailor, naval stoker, etc.	11,088	10,635	453
Driver, coachman	52,489	52,250	239

TABLE 5. LABOR FORCE BY OCCUPATION AND SEX, SEPTEMBER 27, 1965—Continued

Occupation	Total	Male	Female
Messenger	9,045	7,116	1,929
Port and warehouse worker	20,800	19,391	1,409
Crane driver, engineman	10,837	10,829	8
Hotel and restaurant personnel	12,320	1,114	11,206
Porter, furnaceman	10,544	8,991	1,553
Laundry workers	9,809	646	9,163
Cleaning and kitchen personnel	89,752	2,138	87,614
Other unskilled workers	51,267	42,884	8,383
Persons not employed in trade and industry	53,158		53,158
Maid-servants	34,474		34,474
Daughters at home who are maids	18,684		18,684

SOURCE: Denmark, Danish Statistical Office, *Statistik Årbog 1971* (Statistical Yearbook 1971), pp. 58–59.

The composition of the labor force by class of worker has shifted considerably. Enterprises have increased in size, and many small operations have gone out of business, with the result that by April 1970, employers and self-employed persons constituted only about 15 percent of the estimated labor force (see table 6), compared with over 20 percent in 1960. Salaried employees increased by 319,000 or almost 57 percent—41 percent for males and 76 percent for females—to comprise 37 percent of the labor force (compared with 27 percent in 1960), made up almost equally of males and females. The transfer of large numbers of workers out of the employer/self-employed group into the salaried group, the growth of larger enterprises requiring more administrative staff, the increase in the service sector (especially the public service), the growing number of females entering the labor force, and a trend among employers toward remuneration by the month have all contributed to the increase in numbers of salaried employees.

Skilled workers comprised about 15 percent of the labor force, as they did in 1960. The number of unskilled workers has been declining, with the result that their share of the labor force has fallen from 33.3 percent in 1960 to 27.3 percent in 1970. Within this group, there has been a marked change in distribution by sex, there being in 1970 about 88,000 fewer males than in 1960, mostly ex-farmers, but 70,000 more females, mostly charworkers. However, the use of the term "skilled" and "unskilled" worker in Denmark differs significantly from that in most other countries. A Danish "skilled" worker has completed 4 years as an apprentice. Other workers may have equal or greater skill, acquired in vocational schools or through other training or experience, but such training qualifies them only for the category of "special" worker. The term "semiskilled" does not appear to be used in Denmark.

Among the employers and self-employed, those in agriculture and commerce predominate. The largest single groups among salaried employees are clerical and shop workers. In 1970, clerical workers accounted for 31.4 percent of all salaried employees and 11.6 percent of the total labor force; shop workers, for 16.4 percent and 6.1 percent, respectively. Among wage earners, unskilled factory workers predominated, followed by skilled smiths and mechanics, and unskilled charworkers. (See table 7.)

Normally unemployment in Denmark does not constitute a serious problem, the only unemployment of any proportions being seasonal in nature. Unemployment generally rises sharply during the winter months when agriculture, construction, and tourism fall off, and most seasonal layoffs occur. Whereas Norway and Sweden can shift their unskilled workers and some other categories of construction workers into their forest industries during this period, Denmark does not have these resources; the Government is studying the development of other industries to absorb the seasonally surplus workers. A period of relatively high unemployment occurred beginning in late 1967 following a low period and continued for

TABLE 6. LABOR FORCE BY CLASS OF WORKER AND SEX, SEPTEMBER 26, 1960, AND APRIL 29, 1970

[In thousands]

Category	1960 census			April 1970 [1]		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total	2,093.6	1,447.5	646.1	2,389.8	1,469.3	920.5
Employers and self-employed	420.6	375.5	45.1	348.8	311.3	37.5
Wage and salary earners [2]	1,627.8	1,072.0	555.8	1,918.2	1,158.0	760.2
Domestic servants				30.6	0	30.6
Salaried employees				882.7	437.2	445.5
Skilled workers				353.6	337.9	15.7
Unskilled workers				651.3	382.9	268.4
Family workers [3]	45.1	0	45.1	122.8	0	122.8

[1] Estimate for April 29, 1970.

[2] Data for 1960 include about 86,000 domestic servants, including 30,000 daughters working at home as maids. Data for 1970 include 30,600 female "domestic assistants."

[3] No explanation is available for the enormous increase between 1960 and 1970, but it may result in part from differing statistical methods used.

NOTE: Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

SOURCE: Denmark, Danish Statistical Office, *Statistik Årbog 1971* (Statistical Yearbook 1970), p. 61, and International Labor Office, *Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1970* (Geneva 1971), pp. 246–247.

TABLE 7. LABOR FORCE BY CLASS OF WORKER AND INDUSTRY OR OCCUPATION, APRIL 29, 1970

[In thousands]

Class of worker and industry or occupation	Total	Male	Female
All classes of workers	2,389.8	1,469.3	920.5
Employer and self employed	348.8	311.3	37.5
Agriculture, fishing, and forestry	138.9	135.6	3.3
Manufacturing	45.9	42.0	3.9
Building and construction	27.4	27.1	.3
Commerce	69.6	57.8	11.8
Transport	15.8	15.4	.4
Administration and professions	26.4	19.3	7.1
Other services	24.8	14.1	10.7
Salaried employees	882.7	437.2	445.5
Agriculture	5.1	4.9	.2
Central and local government and defense	33.3	31.3	2.0
Teachers	87.1	40.4	46.7
Librarians, scientists, and clergymen	11.6	7.4	4.2
Health service	87.3	11.6	75.7
Civil servants, middle and lower grades	51.1	47.9	3.2
Employees of banks	27.6	15.7	11.9
Editors, newspaper designers	3.1	2.7	.4
Ships' officials	11.4	11.4	0
Employees of air traffic	3.6	2.0	1.6
Telephone exchange personnel	5.4	0	5.4
Clerical employees	277.6	88.8	188.8
Shop assistants	145.2	71.6	73.6
Engineers and architects	37.3	36.5	.8
Other technical employees	82.5	59.4	23.1
Other employees	13.5	5.6	7.9
Skilled workers	353.6	337.9	15.7
Food, beverages, and tobacco	30.1	29.6	.5
Textile workers, dressmakers	3.9	2.6	1.3
Shoemarkers	3.3	2.4	.9
Woodworkers	27.8	27.5	.3
Printing	17.9	17.5	.4
Glass and ceramic workers	1.5	1.1	.4
Smiths, mechanics	130.1	129.9	.2
Others in metal industry	14.5	13.5	1.0
Construction workers	99.2	97.7	1.5
Others	25.3	16.1	9.2
Unskilled workers	651.3	382.9	268.4
Agriculture, forestry, and gardening	45.4	40.5	4.9
Fishing	5.1	4.7	.4
Seamstresses	27.9	0	27.9
Factory workers	213.6	127.7	85.9
Building and construction workers	35.3	35.2	.1
Sailors, naval stokers	9.3	8.8	.5
Drivers, dockers, and freight handlers	94.6	89.6	5.0
Catering	11.8	1.1	10.7
Porters and stokers	21.1	18.6	2.5
Char workers	126.6	3.6	123.0
Other workers	60.6	53.1	7.5
Domestic servants	30.6	0	30.6
"Assisting wives" (family workers)	122.8	0	122.8

SOURCE: Denmark, Danish Statistical Office *Statistik Årbog 1971* (Statistical Yearbook 1971), p. 61.

about 2 years. It reached an annual peak of 5 percent [6] in the 1968, as a result of government fiscal measures to combat inflation and balance of payment difficulties. By mid-1970, however, unemployment rates had dropped below the 1967 low; the annual 1970 average rate was only 2.9 percent, and the previous annual high for the decade was 4.2, in 1963.

Unemployment primarily affects unskilled male workers. Annual average rates of unemployment in 1967–70 were as follows:

	1968	*1969*	*1970*
All workers	5.0	3.9	2.9
Male unskilled workers	8.3	6.3	5.1
Male construction workers	5.1	3.6	3.2
Other male workers	3.2	2.2	1.5
Female workers	3.3	3.4	2.3

[6] Annual rates of unemployment are based on average weekly recordings for insured members of trade union funds.

The 1967–69 annual unemployment rates were highest among seamen and tobacco workers.

Geographically, unemployment rates are lowest in the Copenhagen, Århus, and Sønderborg areas and highest in North Jutland, Bornholm, and Lolland-Falster.

National Service System

Danish men between the ages of 18 and 50 years are subject to 12 months' compulsory military service. Certain categories of students, and men who have severe personal or family problems, may obtain deferments. Conscientious objectors may be granted permission, on request, to perform their military service in a Civil Defense unit; those who eschew this alternative are sent to work in state forest camps for an 18-month period. Plans to permit conscientious objectors to perform their military obligations in underdeveloped countries, in a manner similar to that of the US Peace Corps, are under consideration.

In 1970, the regular Danish Armed Forces totaled about 45,600 and mobilization reserves 118,500, distributed among the three services as follows:

	Regular	*Reserves*
Total	45,600	118,500
Army	28,000	70,000
Navy	7,100	20,000
Air Force	10,500	28,500

In addition to the regular armed forces, Denmark has a para-military arm, the Danish Home Guard. Established in 1949, the Home Guard has a current strength of approximately 50,000, primarily men and women volunteers; many of these are former soldiers, who keep up their military training in their spare time. The Guard is administered jointly by a general officer of the regular army and a civilian member of Parliament, assisted by a full-time staff of 12 army officers and an advisory council of nine civilian consultants.

The Civil Defense organization, under the Ministry of Interior, consists of 22,000 men and women, mostly volunteers. Their mission in peacetime is to assist in cases of disaster, and in wartime to provide relief and protection for civilians, both as to life and property, in situations resulting from military action.

Defense expenditures when compared with those of other North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) countries are low; only

11 percent of the total budget and 2.5 percent of the GNP go for defense.

During an emergency, the Danish Armed Forces would rely heavily on the civilian community and labor force, particularly for supplies, transportation, and maintenance.

A volunteer program within the Army and Navy provides limited special training in a variety of skills, to assure desirable employment for interested service personnel when they complete their service. Generally, however, conscripts are not in service long enough to master any skills other than basic ones needed by a soldier.

Special Characteristics of the Labor Force

Seasonality in employment is considerable in Denmark, and is of serious concern to the Government, which is attempting to develop industries and other projects to combat the problem. Full employment usually characterizes the middle half of the year during the peak period of agricultural activity, construction, and tourism, at which time labor shortages develop, especially among male unskilled workers and workers in the building trades. This is also, however, the period when most workers want, and need, to take vacations, in order to have as much time as possible in the sun, since the rest of the year is gray and damp. As indicated by the unemployment and underemployment data given under Population and Labor Supply, employment opportunities drop sharply during the winter months.

Rural-urban drift is a characteristic of manpower in Denmark as in other areas, although many new industries are being built away from the main metropolitan areas.

In 1967–70, Danish workers employed in Sweden averaged about 19,000. On the other hand, a considerable number of foreign workers, mostly unskilled, work in Denmark. In 1970 there were 37,920 aliens in Denmark, of whom 24,244 had work permits. The average annual increase of foreigners with work permits since 1966 has been 10–15 percent. The largest number with work permits came from West Germany (5,396 in 1970), followed by the United Kingdom (2,162), Yugoslavia (2,185), Turkey (1,755), and the United States (1,208).

Denmark's industrial workers are highly skilled, and its agricultural workers are among the most productive in Europe. The country has modern, efficient industries that produce quality goods by the combined use of its well-trained labor force and a production apparatus of high technical standard. Quality, precision, and modern design are predominant features of Danish industrial production, as is an ability to fill special requirements, and there is a tradition of thorough labor training at all levels. Workers are admitted to the skilled trades only after they have successfully completed a period of apprenticeship averaging 4 years.

According to official data, there were in April 1970 a total of 353,600 skilled workers (excluding those who might be so characterized among the self-employed and salaried employees) and 651,300 unskilled, out of a total of 2,236,400 economically active, exclusive of 153,400 domestic servants and assisting wives. No separation out of the semiskilled is available, they are probably included with the unskilled. (See Population and Labor Force for a description of the pecularities of the Danish terminology regarding skills.) Among those listed as skilled, the large majority were described as smiths, machine operators, and mechanics (130,100), and construction workers (99,200). The most numerous among the unskilled were factory workers (213,600), cleaning workers (126,600), and motor vehicle operators, dockworkers, and freight handlers (94,600). Shortage of skills is not a problem in Denmark, except in a few highly specialized fields. Whereas US industry has developed techniques of mass production, Danish industry is largely built upon small and medium-sized units producing highly refined industrial and agricultural products for export.

PART II. GOVERNMENT AND LABOR

Chapter V. Government

Public Administration

Denmark has an efficient civil service, which reflects the excellent educational system of the country and the Danish tradition of honesty and responsibility. Appointment is on the bases of merit and of job requisites; political appointment does not exist in Denmark, except at the ministerial level. The *Folketing* has no control over administrative bodies. Government officials assume personal liability for official actions, and the civil servant is expected to be neutral in the exercise of his duties.

Although the Prime Minister and the other ministers are appointed by the sovereign, and change when the political situation changes, the civil service is stable and provides continuity of operation. The civil servant enjoys a high degree of job security; legislation guarantees protection against arbitrary dismissal. Job tenure is usually lengthy, and jobs frequently are held for a lifetime. Civil servants are guaranteed complete freedom of expression in politics and are permitted to hold effective office on the national or local level without sacrificing permanent job status.

Government employees enjoy considerable prestige in the society; most of them are considered to be part of the middle and upper groups, depending on their government rank. This prestige accounts in part for the stability of the civil service, and in the view of most government employees, more than compensates for pay rates (see Wages and Supplemental Payments) which civil servants and many other Danes allege to be lower than those in private industry.

According to the 1965 census, which provides the latest complete data available, public administration employed 80,354 persons, or 3.65 percent of the labor force of 2,198,629; 25,151 of these were women. Distribution by branch of service was as follows:

Total	80,354
Central government administration	11,127
Local government administration	25,001
Customs service	4,522
Lawcourts, police	14,337
Military and civil defense	25,367

By April 29, 1970, the total had risen to 108,500, or 4.54 percent of the labor force.

Administrative Bodies Concerned With Labor

The Ministry of Labor has the primary responsibility for labor matters. Other ministries and agencies, however, are responsible for certain special labor-connected functions. Worker education and training, for example, are administered by several bodies. Whereas the general training of unskilled workers comes under the aegis of the Labor Ministry, vocational training is directed by the Ministry of Education, which has jurisdiction of the Apprenticeship Act although the Directorate of Labor and the labor exchanges have various functions under the Act. The retraining of skilled workers is administered by a special committee composed of employers' and workers' representatives together with representatives of the Ministries of Labor and of Education; and rehabilitation is the responsibility of the Ministry of Social Affairs, as is also the industrial injuries insurance scheme. The Ministry of Commerce administers regional development plans. The National Police, a part of the Ministry of Justice, with the assistance of the Labor Ministry, issues residence and work permits for non-Scandinavian workers; the Ministry of Justice is responsible for the admission of aliens. Statistics on employment, unemployment, wages, cost of living, and other

labor-related matters are collected and published by the Danish Statistical Office of the Ministry of Finance. The National Institute of Social Research performs research on social conditions (including labor), and social security, family and youth problems, housing, and health.

According to the latest issue (1970) of the official handbook "Denmark," the Labor Ministry is

> "responsible for general labor questions, including legislation pertaining to conciliation in industrial disputes; the Industrial Court; salaried-staff legislation; holiday legislation; supplementary retirement pensions scheme; profit-sharing social funds and foundations; matters concerning rationalization of central government administration; vocational training of nonskilled workers; employment and training of young persons; refresher training of skilled workers, etc.; reschooling measures; vocational guidance; legislation and administration of measures regulating employment; factory legislation; public and private employment exchanges; unemployment insurance; issuance of labor permits for foreign workers; emigration; statistical and economic matters relating to labor relations; government stationery and publications; advertising and publicity."

The core of the central administration of the Ministry of Labor consists of four offices, without descriptive titles, all of which report to the Minister through the Permanent Undersecretary of Labor. The 1st Office handles questions concerning labor legislation; the 2d Office, training of skilled and unskilled workers and vocational guidance; the 3d Office, industrial safety and unemployment insurance; and the 4th Office, matters in connection with the Public Labor Exchanges and the Scandinavian Liaison Committee.

Two Directorates—the Directorate of Labor and the Directorate of Labor Inspection—constitute the operational agencies of the Ministry, work closely with the appropriate Office, and supervise regional and local operations. The Directorate of Labor, sometimes described as "the main segment of the Labor Ministry," handles the public and private labor exchanges and the registration of foreign workers, and supervises the unemployment funds. Under its aegis are 14 regional labor market boards and 29 regional labor exchange offices. The responsibilities of the regional units are: "to keep informed about the development of employment; collaboration with local committees and institutions which are of importance to the labor market within the province of the office; co-ordination of public and private works; to work out surveys . . ." of manpower supply and demand, which they forward to the Department of Statistics, Ministry of Finance; and to supervise the approximately 400 local exchange offices. The Directorate of Labor maintains liaison with the 2d, 3d, and 4th Offices.

The Directorate of Labor Inspection is concerned primarily with industrial safety. It works closely with the 1st and 3d Offices. The Directorate comprises a Technical Division; and a Socio-Legal Division which administers the Directorate, the regional (or district) offices, and the special institutions, and handles problems of interpretation of the "relevant statutes and provisions on hours of work." (See Enforcement.)

The Labor Board (*Arbejdsnaevnet*) examines questions of principle relating to placement and unemployment insurance on the one hand, and matters concerning the position of individual workers with regard to placement and to unemployment insurance, on the other. The Board, which has advisory and administrative authority, is made up of two sections: a placement section (known as "Board A"), composed of representatives of employers' and workers' organizations; and an unemployment insurance section (known as "Board B"), consisting of representatives of unemployment insurance funds, employers, workers, and the *Folketing*. The Director of Labor is head of both sections, and the Labor Directorate provides them with secretarial services.

A broadly based advisory forum to the Ministry of Labor is the Labor Council, established in 1949 under Act No. 226. Its duties include: submission of its views on problems relating to occupational safety, health, and welfare, either on its own initiative or at the request of the Labor Minister or the Director of Labor Inspection; submission of requests and proposals concerning legislation on the subjects named above; and submission of an annual report on its work to the Minister of Labor. It also provides two of the three members of the Workers' Protection Fund described below.

The Labor Council is composed of 21 mem-

bers, who serve 6-year terms. The Crown appoints the chairman; the Minister of Labor appoints the other 20, as follows: a physician (on the recommendation of the Department of Public Health); a professor (on recommendation of the Technical College of Denmark); eight employers and eight wage earners, each group consisting of three representatives of industry and transport, two representatives of crafts, two of agriculture, and one of commerce; and two salaried employees, one representing technical employees, the other commercial employees. The most representative organization in each of the economic sectors submits three names for each of the last-mentioned 18 seats. Legislation requires that a representative of the Ministry of Labor, the Director of Labor Inspection, and one of the 13 members of the Industrial Injuries Insurance Council or an official of the Directorate of Industrial Injuries Insurance of the Ministry of Social Affairs attend the meetings of the Council, without the right to vote.

The Workers' Protection Fund (Statute 60) operates under a three-man committee comprised of the Director of Labor Inspection, who serves as chairman, and two members of the Labor Council, one of whom is an employer, the other a worker. The purpose of the fund is to carry out and support educational work relating to industrial safety, and to support research on new methods of protection. It is funded by the accident insurance companies and the sickness insurance funds. It publishes posters, pamphlets, and a periodical, "Safety Services"; produces films; and participates in the editing of the monthly safety magazine, "Look Out." It also administers a paid subscription service providing subscribers (usually enterprises) with all the publications of the Labor Inspection Service and the Fund. In addition, the Fund makes grants to the Industrial Safety, Health, and Welfare Exhibition at the Safety Center, which also is supported financially by the state, the Copenhagen municipal government, and workers' and employers' organizations.

A labor court has been in existence in Denmark since 1910. It is tri-partite, with members elected every 2 years. Act No 124 of April 21, 1964, provides that the Labor Court shall consist of six members, 16 substitute members, a president, three vice-presidents and a secretary. As long as the Danish Employers' Confederation (DEC) and the Danish Federation of Trade Unions (LO) represent the majority of employers and workers, these associations appoint, every 2 years, members and substitute members as follows: the DEC—three members and six substitutes; Association of Agricultural Employers (SALA)—two substitutes; and the LO—three members and eight substitutes. The members annually elect the president and vice-presidents, who must have the qualifications required for full-time judges in an ordinary court of law, as must also one of the three members on each side. The secretary is nominated by the Ministry of Labor in accordance with the Court's recommendation. The Labor Court has jurisdiction over breaches of collective agreements, strikes, and lockouts, and is empowered to assess fines for violations and any resultant damages.

Participation in International Organizations

Denmark has long shown great interest in establishing and maintaining close relations with other democratic countries, and to this end has been active in a variety of international organizations, including several concerned with matters affecting labor. Membership in the United Nations (UN) organization, of which Denmark was one of the founding members, is an integral part of Danish foreign policy, and the Kingdom attaches the utmost importance to active participation in its work. Denmark was a member of the UN Security Council in 1967–69, distributes half of its foreign aid contributions through UN bodies, and has participated in UN peace-keeping operations in various parts of the world, including Cyprus, the Congo, and Gaza. By January 1971, it had ratified 39 ILO Conventions. (See Appendix A.) Denmark has been a member of the International Labor Organization (ILO), the UN's labor arm, since its founding in 1919; and, together with the other Scandinavian countries, has been active in its work. Among the other important UN organizations with which Denmark is affiliated are the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD),[7] the Economic and Social Coun-

[7] The "World Bank."

cil (ECOSOC), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), and the World Health Organization (WHO).

Denmark participates in numerous regional organizations such as the Council of Europe (CE), the European Free Trade Association (EFTA),[8] the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the Intergovernmental Committee for European Migration (ICEM), and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), and is an applicant for membership in the European Economic Community (EEC).

Denmark is a strong advocate of expanded cooperation among the Nordic countries (Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Iceland). The Nordic Council, formed in 1950, is the primary organ of cooperation among the Nordic countries. Its establishment has led to the setting up of a common labor market, a common passport area, an agreement for equal social benefits for visiting citizens of other member countries, and further harmonization of legislation in all five countries. Each of these countries has laws based on Council recommendations, which provide virtually equal treatment of their nationals with regard to social security and family welfare. The Council is also a means for continuous administrative cooperation and for exchange of views and information between official bodies in the member countries.

Chapter VI. Legislation Affecting Labor

Constitutional Guarantees

The current Constitution of Denmark, called the Constitutional Act, was signed on June 5, 1953. It reinforces the traditional fundamental rights to life, liberty, religion, and property, and guarantees free speech, privacy in the home, and free and equal access to trade. It further provides that, in order to advance the public interest, efforts should be made to ensure work for every able-bodied citizen on terms that will secure his existence; and that any person unable to support himself or his dependents and who has no one responsible for his or their maintenance, shall be entitled to receive public assistance, "provided that he comply with the obligations imposed by statute in such respect."

The right of association and assembly is paramount. The Constitution guarantees to all citizens the right to form associations, without previous permission, for any lawful reason and to assemble unarmed. Associations employing violence or aiming to attain their objective by violence, by instigation of violence, or by similar punishable influence on persons holding other views shall be dissolved by court order. No association shall be dissolved by government measure, although its operation may be prohibited temporarily provided immediate proceedings are undertaken for its dissolution. The police are entitled to be present at all public meetings. Open-air meetings may be prohibited when it is feared that they may constitute a danger to the public peace.

The 1953 Constitution, and enabling Acts and Orders of 1954, 1961, and 1962, provide for and delineate the responsibilities of an Ombudsman, or Public Affairs Commissioner, to safeguard constitutional rights and the observance of laws and regulations by public officials. The Ombudsman is elected by the *Folketing* to superintend, on the *Folketing's* behalf, not only the administrative services of the Central Government but also, since 1962, to a certain extent those of the municipal governments as well. Thus every citizen is enabled to lodge a complaint in the event of arbitrary treatment by Ministers, civil servants, or other persons employed by the public administration. The Ombudsman may then—once he has investigated the case—express his disapproval if there are grounds for criticism, and, if necessary, have the case brought before the courts. From 1955 to 1967 inclusive, 13,528 complaints had been lodged with the Ombudsman; 75

[8] The other six members are: Austria, Norway, Sweden, Portugal, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom.

percent of these were rejected for various reasons.[9] Of the 3,506 cases investigated, 716 led to action by the Ombudsman in the form of criticism and/or recommendation. Since April 1, 1962, about 12 percent of the complaints have been against local government administration.

Summary of Basic Labor Legislation

Labor legislation in Denmark, especially in labor-management relations, is more limited than in many other countries. There is no labor code and no discernible effort to create one, nor is there a statutory minimum wage. Whereas the right to organize for any lawful purpose is guaranteed by the Constitution, there is no special legislation granting this right to workers other than Act No. 261 of 1948, which states that "salaried employees shall have the right to organize for the protection of their interests . . ." Nor is there any special law regarding the legal basis of collective agreements (as, for example, the 1928 Collective Agreement Act in Sweden), which govern most labor-management relations in Denmark. Several laws concerning dispute settlement, however, do presuppose freedom of association of workers and of employers and the obligations inherent in collective agreements. This situation reflects the desire of labor and management to limit government intervention, and the ability of the two parties to regulate relations between themselves.

On the other hand, Denmark does have considerable legislation governing working conditions and other aspects of work situations, which is continually being reviewed and revised. The legislation may be conveniently divided into four areas: working conditions; labor-management relations; employment and training; and social insurance.

Extensive protective labor legislation dates back to the latter part of the 19th century. The first Factory Act was passed in 1873 and dealt with child labor in factories and workshops. In 1889 an act established safety regulations within shops. The Factory Act of 1913 coordinated all previous laws and regulations regarding factories. Numerous subsequent acts have initiated additional protective requirements, or amended, expanded, and/or replaced earlier legislation on the same subjects. Most of the labor force is now covered, in whole or in part, by the Occupational Safety, Health, and Welfare (General) Act No. 226 of 1954, as amended. The broad scope of this very lengthy law is apparent from the following major sections into which it is divided:

- Scope (persons, industries, worksites, etc., covered)
- Occupational hazards
  - Common provisions
  - Special provisions
    - Health and welfare facilities at the workplace
    - Prevention of accidents
      - General provisions
      - Special provisions relating to certain sources of danger
    - Prevention of health hazards and accidents through the use of personal protection equipment
    - Measures to meet special elements of danger
- Hours of work
  - Scope of provisions relating to hours of work
  - Positioning of hours of work
  - Rest on Sundays and statutory holidays
- Maternity leave, etc.
- Special provisions governing employment of children and young persons
  - Minimum age and medical examinations
  - Employment of young persons on evening, night, and Sunday work; number of daily hours
- Inspection
  - Labor inspection
  - Worker's Protection Fund
  - Labor Council
  - Inspection of machinery and establishments by local authorities
  - The Police
- Penalties

The most important laws dealing with the settlement of labor-management disputes are two acts establishing, in 1910, the Labor Court (originally the Permanent Arbitration Court) and, in 1934, the Conciliation Board. The two acts have been frequently amended, most recently in 1964 and 1958, respectively.

Although collective agreements adequately cover terms of employment in most cases, the *Folketing* felt it necessary to cover by law certain aspects for several categories of workers, including salaried employees, seamen, apprentices, and those agricultural and domestic

[9] They either were received after the 12-month statute of limitations had expired; concerned the work of the law courts; involved local legislation beyond the jurisdiction of the Ombudsman; or had not been brought before a higher administrative authority first.

workers who receive board as part of their remuneration.

Danish legislation in the fields of employment services, unemployment insurance, vocational training, and social insurance is well advanced. A law providing for unemployment insurance and public employment exchanges was first passed in 1932; it was frequently amended and finally replaced in 1970 by the Employment Service and Unemployment Insurance Act No. 114. Special legislation on training includes four acts, covering young persons, vocational training of unskilled workers, vocational guidance, and rehabilitation of handicapped persons. Denmark's system of social security legislation is designed to help any afflicted by, or threatened by, any "socially unbalancing event." The aid may be rendered in cash, by admission to an appropriate institution, through training, in the form of advice, etc.

The major labor legislation currently in effect includes the following:

Working Conditions
- Occupational Safety, Health, and Welfare (General) Act No. 226 of 1954 (most recent amendment, 1968)
- Occupational Safety, Health, and Welfare (Commercial Establishments and Offices) Act No. 227 of 1954
- Occupational Safety, Health, and Welfare (Agriculture, Forestry, and Horticulture) Act No. 228 of 1954
- Paid Annual Leave Act No. 273 of 1970

Labor-Management Relations
- Labor Court Act No. 81 of 1910 (concerning the Permanent Court of Arbitration) (most recent amendment, 1964)
- Conciliation in Industrial Disputes Act No. 5 of 1934 as amended in 1958 and 1961
- Civil Servant Act of June 18, 1969 [30]
- Salaried Employees (Contract of Employment) Act No. 261 of 1948 (most recent amendment, 1964)
- Seamen's Act No. 299 of 1952
- Apprenticeship Act No. 261 of 1956
- Agricultural and Domestic Workers (Paid Partly in Board) Act No. 156 of 1961

Employment and Training
- Employment Service and Unemployment Insurance Act No. 114 of 1970
- Handicapped Persons Rehabilitation Act No. 170 of 1960 (most recent amendment, 1966)
- Young Persons (Employment and Training) Act No. 195 of 1960
- Vocational Training (Unskilled Workers) Act No. 194 of 1960
- Vocational Guidance Act No. 117 of 1961

Social Insurance
- Accident Insurance Act No. 23 of 1948, as amended in 1949
- Sickness Insurance Act No. 239 of 1960
- Social Security (Invalidity and National Pensions) Act No. 238 of 1960
- National Assistance Act of 1961 [30]
- Labor Market Supplementary Pension Act No. 46 of 1964 (most recent amendment, 1967)
- Workmen's Compensation Act No. 137 of 1968

[30] Act No. not available.

Enforcement

According to official reports as well as other sources, labor laws generally are enforced. The practically full application of the legislation reflects the broad general respect for law and order, and the favorable attitudes toward the labor laws among those affected by them. In fact, the laws are largely codifications of voluntary practices. Furthermore, labor law enforcement agencies function efficiently. There appears to be little if any difference in the extent of enforcement among domestic and foreign-owned enterprises or according to location.

The extensive enforcement of protective labor legislation reflects the activities of government administrative agencies (primarily the Labor Inspection Service of the Ministry of Labor), as well as the Labor Court (see Administrative Bodies Concerned With Labor), but also the cooperation of labor and management, either voluntary or under the law. In addition to settling disputes arising out of collective agreements, the Labor Court also enforces the statutory right of association and the duty to bargain collectively; it also handles certain claims for vacation pay.

The Directorate of Labor Inspection, which as previously stated is concerned primarily with industrial safety, has a chief physician, seven specialist inspectors covering the entire country, and a laboratory, the State Institute of Industrial Hygiene (SIIH), engaged partly in field work but operating out of their Copenhagen headquarters. The chief physician supervises 14 part-time industrial medical officers distributed throughout the country.

The industrial medical officers carry out special investigations of occupational diseases, eczemas, and poisonings, and assist the local authorities in clinical studies at the establishments. The seven specialist inspectors—two who handle ventilation, chemistry, dust, and noise; two concerned with safety in building and construction; one responsible for safety in ship loadings and unloadings; and two who inspect manufacturers and suppliers (wholesalers, retailers, and lenders) of machinery (agricultural and industrial)—have contact with organizations, trades, and institutions within their particular occupational field, at the national level. The latter two are empowered to take action against the manufacturers and suppliers; otherwise the specialist inspectors have only consultative status, and assist the districts with advice and guidance. The SIIH carries out tests and analyses of industrial hygiene and makes investigations at the worksites, usually in cooperation with the regions and often in cooperation with the 14 part-time industrial medical officers. The SIIH "makes both individual investigations, for example, in response to complaints (noise, dust, and poisonous fumes), and systematic testings, such as measurements of dust in foundries and testings of welding smoke." It also carries out research.

Regular inspection of workplaces, however, is carried out by: 125 district inspectors—5 inspectors of steam boilers, 4 of lists and hoists, and 1 of bakeries, in Greater Copenhagen; 30 general inspectors in four districts of Copenhagen; and 85 general inspectors in 25 provincial districts. Under the supervision of these inspectors are about 1,000 municipal machinery examiners, who inspect machinery presenting little danger, "as well as agricultural holdings whose motive power is under 16 HP (about 175,000 farms out of a total of 180,000)." These examiners are elected by the local councils; their work is only part time.

Compliance with the safety laws is aided by the statutory obligation of each employer to work toward prevention of accident and disease in his establishment, and of the workers to cooperate in every way in this endeavor.

Enforcement of health and safety measures is also aided by the responsibilities placed by the laws on persons outside the enterprise and outside the administrative units having prime responsibility in the matter. For example, Act 226 provides that if school commissioners and other public authorities become aware of any conditions in their areas which are contrary to the act, they must report the fact to the Labor Inspection Service. "Besides, under regulations to be made by the Minister of Labor after consultation with the competent Minister, the authorities concerned shall be obliged to assist the inspection service in the discharge of its functions." The law requires physicians and hospitals to report all cases of occupational disease which come to their attention.

PART III. LABOR AND MANAGEMENT

Chapter VII. Labor and Management Organizations

Labor Organizations

The Danish labor force is among the most highly organized in the non-Communist world. The four labor confederations and six major unaffiliated trade unions reported memberships for early 1970 totaling about 1,161,600 persons, which constituted about 61.5 percent of the 1,887,600 wage and salary earners (excluding 38,600 female domestic servants)—92.6 percent (930,313 on December 31, 1969) of the 1,004,900 wage earners, but only 26.2 percent (231,290 on April 1, 1970) of the 882,700 salaried employees (April 29, 1970).

In Denmark the term "Labor Movement" is applied by tradition to the Social Democratic Party, the trade unions, and a number of cooperative undertakings founded and operated in the interests of the workers. Together and separately, these three branches of the Labor Movement have developed a number of institutions and organizations for training, education, and trade and other economic purposes. The Danish labor movement has followed much the same pattern of development as the Swedish and Norwegian, and there is also a remarkable parallel with Danish agricultural organizations, especially in the development of cooperative establishments and adult education.

The great majority of Danish unions are craft unions, requiring several years of occupational training as a qualification for membership. Because of this stiff requirement, about 23 percent of all union members belong to one large multicraft union for general and semiskilled or "special" workers, and another 5 percent are organized into a general union of women workers. Only about 40,000 workers are presently organized in industrial (or vertical) unions. For many years, there has been general recognition in Denmark, both in and out of union circles, that organization by craft presents difficulties in a modern industrial society. Industrial organization therefore, is growing steadily, while the number of unions is declining. As early as 1963 the largest Danish labor confederation established a committee to look into the archaic structural system. This committee has made a proposal for restructuring of the system, eventually to result in amalgamating all unions into nine industrial unions. The most serious obstacle to any restructuring of the Danish unions is the difficulty in finding an acceptable arrangement for dismantling the large multi-industry general-workers union.

About three-fourths of all trade union members belong to unions which are affiliated with the largest confederation, the Danish Federation of Trade Unions (*Landsorganisationen i Denmark*—LO), consisting primarily of blue-collar workers. The approximately 896,000 members in its 56 affiliates on December 31, 1970, represented an increase of 30,684 over 1968. The Federation of Civil Servants' and Salaried Employees' Organizations (*Faellesrådet for danske Tjenestemands- og Funktionaerorganisationer*—FTF), had a total membership of 207,000, all white-collar, in 175 affiliates in 1970—over one-third higher than the previous year's membership. The Civil Servants' Central Organization I (*Statstjenestmaendenes Centralorganisation* I) had 44,904 members April 1, 1970, but about 27,000 of these also belonged to the LO. The Danish Supervisors' and Technical Employees' Association (*Faellesrepraesentationen for danske Arbejdsleder- og tekniske Funktionaerforeninger*—FAF) had about 36,000 members in its seven affiliates as of 1970. The six major nonaffiliated unions, of wage earners, had a total of 35,963 members in late 1969.

One sizable "mixed" (employees and self-employed) organization, the coordinating committee of university graduates (*Akademikernes Samarbejdsudvalg*) had 49,000 members in its 15 affiliates—28,000 salaried employees and 21,000 self-employed.

Largest among the LO affiliates is the General and Special Workers' Union *Danske Arbejdsmands- og Specialarbejderforbundet*), with 258,890 members on December 31, 1969, followed by the Commercial and Clerical Workers' Union (*Handels- og Kontorfunktionaerernes Forbund i Denmark*), with 136,386, and the Metal and Machine Workers' Union (*Dansk-Smede- og Maskinarbejderforbundet*), with 101,231. All but 112,854 of the remaining 397,800 members belonged to 14 other major unions. (See table 8.)

The FTF membership is more evenly distributed. The largest unions are those of teachers (31,052 in April 1970), nurses (25,198 in 1970), civil servants (20,619 in 1970), and bank workers (17,856 in 1970). Two affiliates of the Civil Servants' Central Organization I constitute about half the total membership of this trade union central—postal workers (11,669 in 1970) and railway workers (9,743 in 1970); both of these unions are also LO affiliates. FAF membership also is highly concentrated in two affiliates—leather workers and iron industry, white-collar workers, each having about 11,000 members in 1970.

TABLE 8. MEMBERSHIP OF THE DANISH FEDERATION OF LABOR, DECEMBER 31, 1969

Industry	Total	Male	Female	Change over 1968
Total	894,350	648,752	245,598	+29,034
General and special workers	258,890	258,191	699	+4,372
Commercial and clerical workers	136,386	58,043	78,343	+9,216
Metal and machine workers	101,231	101,231	0	+35
Women workers	59,520	0	59,520	+930
Municipal workers	36,410	11,814	24,596	+3,392
Garment workers	20,694	2,246	18,448	+718
Meat packers	20,086	16,654	3,432	+469
Carpenters [1]	19,737	19,737	0	+759
Textile workers	16,355	5,953	10,402	−14
Joiners and cabinetmakers [1]	16,057	15,985	72	+466
Woodworkers	15,985	14,801	1,184	+799
Painters	14,824	14,622	202	+386
Bricklayers	14,797	14,789	8	+285
Domestic workers	13,765	0	13,765	+2,954
Electricians	13,099	13,099	0	+158
Officials	11,992	10,104	1,888	−571
Postal workers	11,668	11,668	0	+56
Other (remaining 43 affiliates	112,854	79,815	33,039	+4,624

[1] The carpenters and the joiners and cabinetmakers merged in early 1970.

SOURCE: U.S. Embassy, Copenhagen.

The Danish union movement is composed of national and local organizations. The basic unit at the place of work is the "union club," which is the direct and immediate link between the individual member and the movement as a whole. At the place of work, each category of workers often has its own club to safeguard its members' interests in relation to the employer. If workers of different crafts are employed at the same place, a joint club is set up to deal with matters of common interest. The union club remains, however, the basic unit of organization, and through the union club each wage earner becomes a member of the local trade union.

The local union covers all organized workers of the same category within a town or locality, and thus usually has members at several, and and sometimes many, places of work. Local unions vary in size from only a few to thousands of members. Members elect full-time officers, when necessary, to advance their interests. Working methods of local unions vary according to size and category of members. Often the local union is represented when new collective agreements are to be concluded with the employers, and one of its most important tasks is to assure that members get the wages and conditions provided in the agreement. In practically all towns of any size the local trade unions form trades councils to deal with matters of common interest.

The local union in turn forms part of a larger unit, the national trade union. A national union covers organized workers of a particular trade or industry on a nationwide basis, and its activities are of immense importance to the individual member. Generally the national union deals with matters relating to the conclusion of new national collective agreements and the amendment of existing agreements. Usually, the national union publishes a journal which is the connecting link between the union and its members. The highest authority of the national union is the congress which assembles every third to fifth year, varying from one union to another.

A congress is also the highest authority for a confederation. It meets every 4 years and is composed of the chief executives of all affiliated national unions, one representative of each individually affiliated union, and one representa-

tive of each trades council. Only the congress can adopt, cancel, or amend the constitution of the organization. In the case of the LO, the congress (which in 1971, as in most years recently, comprised about 1,100 delegates) elects officers and a general council of 400 members and an executive board of 23 members. Between congresses the general council is the highest decisionmaking authority. It is composed of the executive board and representatives of the affiliated organizations on the basis of one representative for each 2,000 members or part thereof. The general council is convened at least once a year. The day-to-day work of the LO is directed by the executive board, whose membership comprises seven full-time officers and 14 additional members, all elected by the congress, and two officials of the Social Democratic Party.

Arrangements for closer cooperation among related unions began in 1904 when 13 unions in the woodworking industry formed a "cartel." In 1970, there were six cartels of LO affiliates (some of which had non-LO members), as follows:

	Affiliates	*Members*
Metal workers	18	168,000
Construction workers	10	122,000
Civil servants [1]	[2] 29	39,081
Food and beverage industry workers [3]	9	57,600
Graphics workers [1]	3	25,275
Woodworkers	6	56,300

[1] Data are for 1964.
[2] At least 4 non-LO.
[3] One non-LO. Three of the nine are joined in a subcartel, the Hotel and Restaurants Workers' Cartel.

The metalworkers and the construction workers cartels negotiate collective agreements with the employer organizations of their industry; the others do not.

The trade union movement is financed chiefly by membership dues. Most unions collect entrance fees, which are quite low, rarely exceeding DKr 5.00 (US $0.67). The membership dues on the other hand very considerably from union to union. In 1960, the average weekly dues of LO-affiliated union members were DKr1.65 (US$0.22), with a range of from DKr0.65 (US$0.09), for members of the General and Special Workers' Union, to DKr1.75 (US$0.24), for printers, whose union pays out many and particularly high benefits to its members compared with other unions. In addition to these dues, there is a local contribution fixed by the local group themselves according to local conditions and to the degree of likelihood that special assistance payments to members may become necessary. Local contributions in 1960 averaged DKr1.48 weekly (US$0.20); those for general workers averaged DKr1.75 (US$0.24) weekly compared with DKr1.38 (US$0.18) for printers.

The contribution of the affiliated unions to the LO, as determined by its 1971 congress, is DKr40 (US$5.36) a year for each full-paying member. Individual unions reduce the DKr40 for their non-full-paying members—unemployed or disabled members, or young members performing their National Service—by amounts that vary from union to union. Part of the affiliates' contributions are devoted to the building of labor colleges. The LO can impose extra contributions on its affiliates to assist a union or unions involved in a dispute which it endorses. When more than 3 percent of the members of an affiliated union are involved in a labor dispute, the union is entitled to financial support from the central organization. In 1961 such support amounted to DKr10–15 (US$1.34–2.01) weekly for each of its members involved in the dispute. In special cases the LO is entitled to impose extra contributions on its affiliated organizations to support labor disputes in other countries.

Since 1899, when the September Agreement was concluded, practically all Danish citizens have recognized organized labor as an integral part of the nation's political and economic life. Since that time labor unions have grown in stature in the opinion of the public and today occupy a highly respected position in Danish national life. Much of this achievement can be attributed to the high quality of leadership which the LO and the Social Democratic Party have generally maintained during the past 70 years.

International Ties

Danish trade unions are active in, and have a positive influence on, international affairs in a variety of ways. Labor union support has strengthened Denmark's role in the Nordic Council, comprised of the three Scandinavian countries plus Finland and Iceland, and has helped to establish the common labor market in Scandinavia. The LO participates in the

work of the International Labor Organization (ILO), and has backed the adoption of many ILO conventions by the Danish Parliament, though many of these fall short of the labor conditions already existing in Denmark.

Almost all Danish trade unions maintain contact with their counterparts in Norway, Sweden, and Finland. Reciprocal agreements have existed for a long time among the Scandinavian unions. At first these concerned only the exchange of information, union publications, and reports, but gradually they were extended to include, for example, the granting of mutual financial assistance in labor disputes. The financial assistance arrangement has proved particularly valuable because it enables considerable sums to be raised in support of unions engaged in protracted conflicts with employers.

The Trade Union Federations of the five Nordic countries also maintain organizational contact. This cooperation has often found very practical expression not only in providing financial aid during large-scale labor struggles, but also in an exchange of speakers at big meetings and demonstrations, joint study courses, sometimes of a lengthy character, and study at labor colleges. Joint Scandinavian trade union conferences take place two or three times a year to discuss matters of current importance and to work out a joint policy.

Denmark also has a long history of labor-union cooperation of broader international importance. The Danish Federation took part in the formation of an international trade union secretariat which in 1913 was transformed into the International Federation of Trade Unions (IFTU); though interrupted by World War I, the IFTU eventually had a membership, in 1921, of 24 million in 21 countries. The Danish LO cooperated in founding the International Confederation of Free Trade-Unions (ICFTU) in the fall of 1949, and is represented on the Executive Board of the ICFTU.

Most Danish trade unions are members of the appropriate International Trade Secretariat (ITS). In 1965 a total of 60 LO-affiliated unions were affiliated with 13 ITS, some having membership in more than one. Also six major labor organizations not affiliated with a national center were affiliated with four ITS. (No data are available as to whether or not any of the FTF- or FAF-affiliated unions were also affiliated with an ITS.)

The LO, working through Danish governmental aid organizations, is very active in assisting developing countries. These efforts were centered in 1970 primarily in sub-Sahara Africa, especially Kenya, Tanzania, and Zambia. In 1970 a study group of 31 persons in a 2-week study trip explored the need for and interest in Danish labor assistance in Kenya and Tanzania, and an official of the General and Special Workers Union spent 6-months in Kenya as a technical advisor in 1970–71.

Management Organizations

The leading employer organization in Denmark is the *Dansk Arbejdsgiverforening* (Danish Employers' Confederation—DEC). On May 1, 1971, according to official sources, the DEC consisted of 199 member organizations, comprising 24,109 affiliated enterprises, and 209 individual member firms, for a total of 24,318 enterprises, employing about 365,000 wage earners. Some member organizations have joined together into industrial federations. Currently 10 such federations exist. Members are also organized geographically in 68 local or regional federations. "Eligible for membership are employers' organizations whose object is to gather together in one membership employers from all over the country engaged in the same trade or industry, local employers' organizations with the same objective, and individual firms which, because of their special nature, are unable to join either of these two types of groups." [11]

The aims of the DEC as stated in its Constitution are to (1) provide a central organization to industrial employers' organizations and individual businesses, (2) advance and strengthen professional federations of employers throughout the country, (3) contribute toward the maintenance of a spirit of solidarity and a common approach by employers' organizations to protect employers' common interests in all questions concerning wages and working conditions, (4) contribute toward the avoidance as far as possible of disputes between employers and workers or to seek their solu-

[11] "Brick by Brick," the Danish Employers Confederation.

tion by peaceful means without work stoppages, (5) resolve disputes within the confederation itself, (6) take part in Scandinavian and international cooperation in the labor market, and (7) promote understanding of the employers' tasks and points of view by providing study courses and other information work.

The formulation and execution of collective bargaining policy constitute the principle functions of the DEC; it is also engaged in subsidiary activities relating to industrial relations. Its jurisdiction is confined to employer-employee relationships of the affiliated members and does not extend to commercial or marketing matters. It provides mechanisms for solving disputes among members and for financial assistance to members during labor disputes. It is the spokesman for employer interests before government agencies; it selects the employer members of the Labor Courts.

Overall authority for governing the affairs of the confederation is vested in a 600-delegate General Assembly, which convenes once a year. DEC members are divided into three groups—handicrafts, industry, and commerce—for the purpose of election of delegates to the General Assembly. These three groups elect, proportionally to their respective strength, a "general council," normally consisting of 54 members. No group can elect more than 27 members to this council. Immediately following the general assembly, the general council elects from its members a president and one or more vice presidents (the presidium), an executive committee of 15 members, including the presidium, and a budget committee of three members, who "must not also be members of the executive committee." The executive committee carries out collective agreement negotiations and passes on proposed declarations of lockouts. (See Industrial Relations.) A board of directors appointed by the executive committee and directly responsible to the presidium administers day-to-day operations, based on an organization chart approved by the executive committee.

In 1970, administration functioned through a managing director, a directorate, and a secretariat, and seven departments with duties as follows:

Department	*Function*
Administration	Overall administration, dues, fiscal management, etc.
Information and Public Relations	Information, public relations.
Statistics	Wage and employment statistics, data processing (IBM), special surveys (e.g., of health, accidents, etc.).
Negotiation	Technical section handles agreement or work studies and advises members on wage systems, piece rates, profit sharing, joint consultation, and improvement in relations with workers; negotiation section (mostly lawyers) handles new agreements, grievances, disputes.
Salaried Employees and Social Affairs	Special matters relating to salaried employees, social legislation, ILO.
Economics and International Affairs	Four economists, representing the confederation, serve as staff members at ILO, IOE (International Employers' Organization), EFTA (as contact men) and EEC (presently only in planning Danish participation).
Training	School and training-school section handles matters relating to retraining, advises lower school graduates regarding trends in job opportunities; management-education section operates one residential training center; foremen-training section operates two centers for training of foremen; and section for training in handicrafts for small industrialists operates a residential training center (in Jutland).

The Constitution of the DEC also provides for two types of DEC arbitration courts for settlement of internal disputes. Disputes between the DEC and a member are settled by the executive committee or a three-member court consisting of one arbitrator chosen by the DEC, one by the opposing party, and a chairman selected by these two. Disputes between DEC members are settled by the executive committee or a five-member court consisting of two DEC members appointed by the executive committee, one representative nominated by each of the opposing parties, and a chairman appointed by these four. In both cases, the chairman must have the qualifications of a superior court judge.

The DEC exercises considerable power over its members in carrying out its functions. One prime example of this power is in the restrictions on members in regard to collective bargaining. The Constitution of the DEC forbids affiliates from entering into collective agreements on the following subjects without permission of the confederation's executive committee: Reduction of working time, general wage increases, new minimum wages, longer paid or unpaid vacations than stipulated by law, greater accident or sickness compensation than legally required, union shop provisions, apprenticeship restrictions, union hiring halls,

or provisions that may interfere with participation in a lockout declared by the DEC. Contract changes covering these points, proposed either by employers or trade unions, must be submitted to the DEC before bargaining may ensue, and the confederation's express approval must be obtained before they are finally incorporated in new agreements. Where disputes over new contract terms or over the interpretation of existing agreements cannot be resolved directly between the parties involved, representatives of the DEC conduct further negotiations with higher levels on the union side.

The DEC collects from its members annual dues amounting to 0.5 percent of the preceding year's wage bill of the enterprise; the minimum for an individual employer, however, is DKr25.00 (US$3.33) per year. Unless waived by the executive committee, new members must pay to the DEC an entry fee of up to 1 percent of the wages paid in the preceding year. Enterprises also pay dues to the subsidiary organization.

In addition, the DEC consititution requires that every affiliated organization and individual firm accumulate relief funds for use during work stoppages (total or partial strikes, lockouts, boycotts, absenteeism, etc.), by requiring annual contributions of 0.25 percent of the preceding year's wage bill. These funds are paid into a common relief fund, maintained by a group which organizations and/or individual enterprises have formed, or into the DEC relief fund, unless the DEC General Council has granted permission to the individual enterprise or organization to maintain its own fund.

The Association of Agricultural Employers, (*Sammenslutningen af Landbrugets Arbejdsgiverforeninger*—SALA) is the farm-employers' counterpart of the DEC. It has 18 affiliated national federations, each of which represents a particular field of agriculture (e.g., cattleraising, dairying, horticulture, etc.). Information is not available on the numbers of individual members or of their employees, or on the structure and overall activities of this confederation.

Aside from these organizations whose primary purpose is to represent the interests of employers in their relations with labor unions, Danish management is extensively organized in trade associations and chambers of commerce. The largest trade association is the Federation of Danish Industries (*Industrirådet*), the principal industrial organization in economic matters. It has as affiliates 63 industrial branch organizations, which cater to the special interests of the individual industries, and embraces 2,800 industrial establishments. The federation represents manufacturing industries in dealings with the public, the *Folketing*, the executive branch of the government, and the public administration. Through the Federation, industry is represented on many commissions, boards, committees, and organizations concerned with matters of special interest to industry. Of special interest is its Export Department, which procures and provides information to Danish industrial establishments, and closely cooperates with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The Federation's activities are managed by a board, consisting of a chairman and two vice-chairmen, and a council of up to 70 members, including the board.

Other major industry and trade groups include:

- The Danish Agricultural Marketing Board [12]
- The Agricultural Council (12-member organization [12]
- The Federation of Danish Agricultural Societies [12]
- The Federation of Danish Smallholders' Societies [12]
- The Royal Agricultural Society of Denmark
- The Danish Horticultural Council (12 affiliated organizations)
- The National Association of Danish Fruitgrowers
- The Fisheries Council (10 affiliated organizations)
- The Danish Fish Exporters' Association
- The West Jutland Fisheries Association
- The Handicrafts Council (435 associations with total membership of 50,000)
- The Federation of Danish Cooperative Societies (29 member cooperatives)

[12] The Agricultural Council and the two federations of agricultural and of smallholders' societies, along with various agricultural sales organizations, comprise the membership of the Danish Agricultural Marketing Board.

Chapter VIII. Industrial Relations

Collective Bargaining

The necessity of collective negotiations and agreements was recognized earlier in Denmark than in most countries. The first agreement to cover a considerable number of workers, on wages and disputes settlement for carpenters in Copenhagen, was signed in May 1873. Toward the end of the century collective agreements were in force for almost all trades in Copenhagen and the most important provincial towns. The system today covers almost the whole of the labor market and determines and regulates practically all details of the relationship between workers and employers. Almost no industrial strife has occurred during the life of the agreements, primarily because the organizations of the two parties concerned have borne the responsibility for seeing that the conditions which have been agreed to are respected in practice. Approximately 4,500 collective agreements are usually in operation; about 2,000 of them are with members of the Danish Employers' Confederation (DEC).

Most collective agreements are local and have been concluded with individual firms. According to an ICFTU publication of 1961, "it is common for a district, a branch, or a large undertaking to be within the organizational sphere of several unions simultaneously; and therefore a separate agreement is concluded with each of these unions." Gradually, however, the national agreements have absorbed many of the provisions of the local and individual agreements, so that most employed workers are also included in collective agreements which cover the whole country, or Copenhagen, or all places outside the capital. On the other hand, the number of local and individual agreements has been increasing, and these still represent the majority.

Collective bargaining in Denmark is not covered by government legislation. The foundation for all collective bargaining was established in 1899 when the "September Agreement" was concluded between the LO and the DEC, which laid down the fundamental rights and obligations of the two parties of the labor market, as equal partners. This agreement had the same effect as legislation and showed that in general the two organizations were themselves able to solve their problems. After serving for 61 years as the basis of Danish industrial relations, the September Agreement was replaced by a revised, modernized version called the Main Agreement of 1960.[13] The LO repudiated the Main Agreement in 1968, primarily on the basis of a desire to achieve a greater voice in directing and distributing work. This action has not interfered, however, with the renewal of the various collective agreements. Both the LO and the DEC express continuing faith in most of the precepts of the Main Agreement and are optimistic about its early replacement with a new basic agreement embodying most of its principles.

The latent conflict of interest between employers and workers manifests itself particularly during the period of negotiations, which usually take place at 2-year intervals, when the 2,000 or so agreements within the sphere of the DEC come up for renewal. Subsidiary organizations and individual firms enter into agreements with the workers, but confederation approval is required on the more important questions, such as reduction of working hours,

[13] The DEC in its pamphlet, "Brick by Brick" summarized the provisions of the Main Agreement as follows: "By the terms of the Main Agreement . . . each party acknowledges the other's right to organize itself within the framework of the central organizations. Once an agreement has been entered into, peace must be preserved between the parties thereto for the period of the agreement. On renewal of an agreement, and in the few cases during the period of the agreement when a stoppage is legally admissable, a stoppage of work must be approved by at least a three-quarters majority of the competent assembly concerned. At least 14 days' notice of cessation of work must be given as a first warning, and at least 7 days as a second, before [the stoppage is] . . . put into effect. Employers have the right to manage and distribute the work, but must do it in such a way as to avoid interference with workers' rights under agreements. Summary dismissal of individuals is forbidden, and claims that dismissal is unjustified can be brought, as a final appeal, before the Dismissal Board, which can award compensation to the worker. Foremen and persons in similar supervisory positions can be denied membership in a workers' organization."

general wage increases, and longer holidays. (See Management Organizations.)

Procedures for negotiations of LO-DEC collective agreements are laid down in a set of rules agreed upon by the two central organizations. The agreements (central, industrywide, local, and enterprise) generally are for 2 years and take effect on March 1st of odd-numbered years. In those rare cases where agreement on terms has not been reached, the old agreements remain in effect pending final negotiations. The general pattern is: the enterprise, local, and industrywide organizations formalize their overall proposals during the early fall and exchange these by October 15 at the latest; by October 25 the two central organizations agree on which of these are general questions.[14] The central organizations must determine the magnitude of gains and improvements by November 15th. Failing settlement, the subjects of dissension are presented to the Conciliation Board (see Settlement of Disputes), which attempts to bring the two parties together in agreement by December 15th. When this is not successful, the Conciliation Board must draft a proposed agreement, to be presented to the two sides by February 10th. The two sides must present the Board's proposal to their affiliates for vote by February 28th. Should either of the two sides reject the proposals, a no-contract situation would exist, with attendant likelihood of a strike or lockout. However, the Law on Mediation in Labor Disputes empowers the Conciliation Board to postpone strikes or lockouts for up to 2 weeks, or in cases against the public interest, for up to 1 month. In recent years, an additional stage has increasingly become a possibility in the settlement of serious labor disputes. As of May 1971, on 19 occasions the *Folketing* had intervened to preclude a strike: on some occasions the rejected terms of the state mediator were enacted into law; on others, various forms of compulsory arbitration were legislated.

The stages of negotiations of special claims (those not handled by the central organizations) follow a similar pattern. Section 9 of the LO-DEC agreement of June 6, 1964, provides:

> 1. The suborganizations shall after December 1 open negotiations on the special claims.
> 2. During negotiations on special questions, either party may, where direct negotiation has failed, remit outstanding questions for negotiation with the participation of the central organizations and the Conciliation Board, if required through a subconciliator.
> 3. Where agreement is not reached through negotiation or mediation, the Conciliation Board may, after consultation with the parties, decide that special questions shall be referred for consideration by joint committees, consisting of a representative of each of the central organizations and an equal number of representatives of the parties to the agreement, with an umpire elected by the committee as Chairman. Failing agreement on the election of Chairman, the latter shall be appointed by the Conciliation Board.
> 4. The special questions shall be decided by February 10.

The salient features of both the 1969 and 1971 central agreements between the LO and the DEC were reductions of the hourly workweek, an extra wage hike to those in the lowest pay categories, and a narrowing of the gap between wages paid to men and women for equal work. (Two prominent 1969 labor demands for management-financed funds were not achieved—one for severance pay and compensation for layoffs, and one to defray the costs of training shop stewards.) The 1971 agreement also provides for increases in annual leave in 1972 and again in 1973.

The collective agreements made by LO-DEC affiliates generally make more numerous provisions than the LO-DEC central agreements and add extensive annotations to the provisions. For example, the 1969 agreements in the metal-processing industry (covering over 100,000 workers) comprised 8 chapters (and 11 supplements) on wages and working conditions, as follows:

I. The Cooperation
  Election of shop steward
  Tasks of the shop steward
  Meetings with shop steward
  Dismissal of a shop steward; elimination of shop steward's position
  Common shop steward
  Substitute for shop steward
  Rules for clubs and mutual agreements among the workers

[14] Those demands which may be expected to affect all the agreements or the greater part of them, and therefore will form part of the central agreement.

Local agreements between the employer and the workers

II. Normal Working Hours
- Normal working hours
- Keeping of the working hours
- Overtime
- Holidays

III. Organization and Legitimation
- Legitimation of skilled workers
- Admission by skilled workers to the organizations of skilled workers
- Admission of unskilled workers to the organizations of skilled workers
- Relation between foremen and organizations of skilled workers

IV. Wages
- General rules for time rates
- Special rules for time rates
- Piece-work rates
- Special piece-work stipulations
- Waiting time
- Returning home
- Ship carpenters
- Painters
- Cost-of-living allowances
- Payment of wages

V. Hiring and Discharge of Workers
- Rules of discharge
- Discontinuation of employment during piece-work periods
- Withdrawal of discharges
- Re-engagement of workers
- Employment of unskilled workers
- Employment of female workers

VI. Holiday Pay and Holiday-Falling-on-Weekday pay

VII. Arbitration and Work-Shop Rules

VIII. Duration of the Agreement

In addition, the Common Workshop Rlues, which are a separate part of the metal industry agreement, covered:

I. Normal Working Hours

II. Overtime
- Rates of payment
- Notice of overtime
- Making up of overtime

III. Shift work
- General rules for working hours
- Special provisions for working hours
- Payment for shift work
- Compensation for shortened working time in the second and third shifts
- Allowance for overtime work
- Interruption of shift work
- Transfer
- Pay for loss of holidays
- Local agreements

IV. Staggered Working Hours
- Establishment
- Notice
- Rules for duration
- Overtime

V. Outside Work
- Definition
- Pay
- Transportation allowance
- Cancellation of allowance for outside work and for transportation allowances

VI. Travel Work (work away from jobsite, requiring overnight stay)
- Pay for travel work
- Pay for travel time
- Pay for traveling, board, and lodging expenses

The two parties (metal-machine industry workers' and employers' federations) also had an agreement, dated 1964 but still in effect in 1970, covering regulations for treatment of conflicts, which also formed a part of the overall agreement of the industry.

Settlement of Disputes

In Denmark, as in Norway and Sweden, relations between labor and management have been characterized by cooperation and mutual adjustment. Employers and workers, aware of their stake in the continued expansion of the economy, have been prepared to compromise their differences in order to avert the injurious effects of industrial strife. Danish labor, assisted by a government committed to raising living standards of the country's population, is exceptionally stable. Organized management has proved receptive to change; it survived earlier agitation for a socialized economy through its pragmatic adjustment to a welfare society, and continues to enjoy a fair measure of freedom in the conduct of its affairs. As a result, Denmark has had relative labor peace since World War II, and serious strikes have been infrequent.

In disputes between labor and management, an important distinction is made, as in Sweden, between conflicts of interests (economic conflicts) and conflicts of rights (legal conflicts). Conflicts of interest are disputes arising

in bargaining before a collective agreement has been concluded. This type of conflict is unregulated by law, except as provided in the Conciliation in Industrial Disputes Act No. 15 of 1934, as amended in 1961, which established the Conciliation Board. Conflicts of rights are disputes arising over the interpretation or the violation of collective agreements. Labor and management oppose compulsory settlement of conflicts of interest by government action, but accept government regulation of conflicts of rights.

The Conciliation Board is a government body. Act No. 15 requires that the Minister of Labor appoint, on the recommendation of the Labor Court, three conciliators (who elect their own chairman) for the entire country to assist in settling disputes between employers and workers, and up to 21 subconciliators to assist the conciliators. The Board is empowered to require every employers' organization or establishment and every workers' organization to submit copies of any collective agreement to which it is a party. In addition, every independent employer and every employers' or workers' organization must submit to the Board a copy of all notices issued respecting stoppage of work, unless the case requires a Labor Court decision (namely, conflicts of rights). Although the Government has no authority to settle conflicts arising in the bargaining process, it assists in solving such conflicts, through the Conciliation Board system. Under the law, the chief aim of conciliation is to assist the parties in reaching an agreement on their own terms, generally to avoid a work stoppage, and, if this fails, to assist them in reaching an agreement which will end the stoppage. Under this law, conciliators must (1) follow labor developments in their regions; (2) assist in the settlement of disputes; and (3) assist the parties to conclude agreements likely to establish good relations between them and to prevent strikes and lockouts. The parties are bound by law to attend meetings convened by the conciliator, whether on his own motion or at the request of one of the parties. The conciliator may require postponement of an imminent work stoppage as a condition for his mediation. Should the conciliator consider its desirable, he may put forward a draft settlement, after consulting each of the parties.

The system applying to disputes of interpretation and to alleged breaches of agreements is well developed. If a disagreement about interpretation of a provision arises between the two parties, the matter may be referred to an industrial arbitration committee, composed of two representatives of each side and an impartial umpire. This committee makes a decision which is binding upon the parties.

When an agreement has been violated, an initial attempt is made to settle the dispute by direct mediation between the parties concerned, i.e., the local trade union and the opposite employers' association. In the event of failure to agree, the matter is referred (1) to the national unions and industry associations; (2) then, if still no agreement, to the central confederations of labor and of management; and (3) this failing, to the Labor Court. The Labor Court deals exclusively with matters relating to collective agreements. It may award a compensation or payment of amounts due or impose a fine. Its rulings are final, i.e., no appeal can be made.

In recent years, major disputes have involved demands for increases in wages; equal wages for equal work, especially for women; reductions in the work-week; and longer vacations. Other significant sources of conflict have been over "industrial democracy (i.e., joint influence and codetermination between labor and management)," which the LO has been pushing quite strongly in recent years, especially relating to job assignments and job security. Profit sharing is another current and lively source of conflict. Most disputes are negotiated in the atmosphere of mutual respect which has developed in many years of responsible dealings between the LO and the DEC.

Although strikes are permissible after the established procedures for a peaceful settlement have been exhausted and no collective agreement is in force, prolonged strikes have been infrequent. Only four major strikes have occurred in recent years: Those of transport workers in 1956 and 1961, of metallurgical workers in 1961, and of brewery workers in 1965. Nearly 220,000 workers were involved in strikes in 1956 and 1961, which resulted in a loss of about 3.0 million man-days. During

1963–69 the annual number of work stoppages ranged from 17 to 48 (in 1969); of workers involved, from 6,527 to 35,856 (also 1969); and of man-days lost, from 10,000 to 242,000 (in 1965). The end of 1969 witnessed increasing evidence of a slackening of labor discipline; wildcat strikes began to proliferate, and even civil servants were evincing increasing militancy. Nevertheless, Denmark's strike record for the whole of 1969 was only about 30 days lost per 1,000 wage and salary earners, compared with 626 in the United States and 3,373 in Italy, but only 12 per 1,000 in West Germany and 6 in the Netherlands.

Denmark has no legislation on picketing. This form of protest, however, is not customary in Denmark.

Relations in Nonunion Enterprises

Most nonunion labor is among persons engaged in family enterprises and small establishments in service trades, other agricultural workers (including those in forestry and fishing), and other white-collar workers, although many white-collar workers are organized. The relationship between nonorganized employers and employees is generally one of mutual respect. Because of the high degree of organization of employers and employees, wages and working conditions established by collective bargaining have become the norm even in unorganized establishments. Nonunion members in enterprises operating under a collective agreement generally work under the conditions in force for organized employees. Many unorganized employers negotiate collective contracts with the appropriate union, with terms similar to those of industrywide agreements.

Unorganized employees do not share certain advantages which the organized have. In grievance cases, all employees must deal with their immediate supervisor as the first step. After this initial step, however, the union member has the union organization to represent him, if necessary, at the Labor Court. The unorganized worker, on the other hand, must press his own claim with management; he cannot use the Labor Court, but only an ordinary court.

PART IV. CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

Chapter IX. Employment Practices

Records and Reports

Employers in Denmark maintain numerous records and make many reports to comply with provisions of laws and collective agreements. Various laws, especially those on working conditions and social security, require detailed records and reports on the number of employees, hours worked, earnings of each employee, social security withholdings, and/or employer contributions for holiday allowances, pensions, health insurance, and workmen's compensation insurance.

Employers are required under the Occupational Safety, Health, and Welfare (General) Act No. 226 of 1954, as amended, to report to the Labor Inspector any change in use, alteration, or expansion of the premises. They must also maintain an inspection book in which the inspection staff enters observations on their inspections and any instructions they see fit to give the employer. In this book the employer must enter on special pages all accidents other than insignificant ones and indicate what precautions have been taken to prevent such accidents in the future. The employer must also keep, and annex to the book, all official communications to the enterprise from the labor inspection service. The book must be kept readily accessible. Shop stewards and safety representatives of the workers must be given an opportunity to see the book. When full, inspection books must be kept at the undertaking for 5 years. If an enterprise changes owners, former owners must hand over the inspection books to the new owner. Act No. 226 also states that (1) the Director of Labor Inspection shall be entitled for statistical purposes to require the submission of data on the number, age, and health of workers, and on the number, type, and size of machines, apparatus, and other technical equipment, but that (2) such statistics shall not be published with any mention of the name of the employer or firm.

In addition, Act No. 226 requires that employers post, at a suitable place in the workshop (1) an abstract of the act and regulations under the act (which the Director of Labor Inspection in consultation with the Labor Council is required to prepare), and (2) a notice of the address and telephone number of the district office which has jurisdiction over the establishment. The Director may require that the employer post warning notices considered necessary to prevent health and accident risks.

For salaried employees, the employer is required (Act No. 261 of 1948) to (1) honor the request of his staff, through their organization, for negotiations respecting salaries and conditions of work, and (2) see that a record of the negotiations is made, that it is signed by both parties, and that a copy is delivered to each party. Failure to make this record is punishable by fine, which accrues to the state treasury.

Posting of notices, information bulletins, and circulars in easily visible and accessible places, in addition to those required by law, is customary in most establishments.

Preemployment Inquiries

Reliable information on the education, previous experience, and personal characteristics of applicants for employment generally is available to Danish employers. Like other European employers, they rely extensively on documents attesting to an applicant's background. School diplomas, which are given after students pass final examinations, are reliable indicators of

scholastic achievement. Higher educational certificates, including those for vocational training, also are customarily given. Act No. 226 of 1954, as amended, requires that the employer provide young workers under age 18 with a workbook in which details of the employment are entered. Adults with previous job experience usually can present a complete record of their work experience, and job references from employers are normally given. The salaried employee is entitled, according to Act No. 261, to require from his employer a certificate as to the duration of his service, the type of work in which he has mainly engaged, the amount of his salary, and, if dismissed, the reason therefor if he so requests. Contravention of this provision is liable to punishment by fine, which shall accrue to the National Exchequer.

Because of the moderate size of most communities, employers and employment service representatives know many applicants personally or know their reputation for honesty, hard work, and sobriety. An employer can check an applicant's police record through the register in each of the country's administrative districts.

Hiring

Most hiring in Denmark is done directly by employers. In recruiting, the press is utilized, as are personal contacts and family connections.

Act No. 261 of 1948 concerning salaried employees places certain restrictions on employers and applicants in advertising vacancies or job availability; contraventions are punishable by fine. For example, an advertisement may not state that (1) an employee not liable to military service is sought or preferred, or that the person seeking employment is not liable to military service, nor that (2) employment is subject to contribution of capital or that preference will be given to an applicant who is able to make such a contribution. An enterprise which advertises for employees without giving its name and address must state clearly the training and other qualifications the applicant must possess and the minimum salary of the job. When a cash deposit is required before the employee takes up his duties, the advertisement must give the name and address of the enterprise. Apparently there is no legislation placing similar restrictions on employers of wage earners.

Since legislation has been passed centralizing public employment-exchange functions, employers probably will utilize the public service to a much greater extent than formerly, according to officials of the Danish Employers' Confederation.

There are no private employment agencies in Denmark of the kind found in the United States, except for a very few small ones concerned with temporary employment of clerical workers such as typists, secretaries, etc., for a maximum of 3 months. Act No. 249 of June 13, 1968, covering private placement, provided that the Director of Labor might permit a private employment agency already in operation to continue but only if so requested before March 31, 1970. "The Minister of Labor, may, on the recommendation of the Director of Labor and after consultation with the appropriate employers' and workers' organizations, authorize any private person or association to operate a private placement service within particular occupational or local areas where a particularly special need therefor is deemed to exist" (Act No. 114 of 1970). Engagement in private placement work without authorization is punishable by fine or imprisonment. In general, the prohibition, in principle, of private employment agencies is being tightened up. For some time, the trend in Scandinavia has been away from private employment agencies; e.g., Swedish law prohibited commercial employment services entirely, beginning in 1964.

The most recent legislation on a public employment service is Act No. 114 of March 24, 1970, titled the Act on the Placement Service and Unemployment Insurance. Previously, placement services had been provided by the public unemployment insurance fund system operated by the unions and only to a lesser extent by the public employment service. An act passed in May 1968 already had separated employment and insurance. The Government's service has now taken full charge of placement; and the unions, of insurance.

Act No. 114 provides for a "Placement Service, . . . a neutral, nationwide system . . . effecting free placement . . . at the disposal

of jobseekers and employers of all trades and occupations." Operating under the Director of Labor assisted by a "National Labor Board," the service must also follow the trend of the labor market, take the initiative for measures relevant to the labor market, and assist central and local authorities in the collection and analysis of labor market conditions. The service consists of a public placement office in each county borough, except that a common office serves Copenhagen county borough and the communes of Copenhagen and Frederiksberg. A manager, independent of employer or employee interests, heads each placement office; he and his staff are selected by the Director of Labor, who is also empowered to set up and close down branch offices operating under the county exchanges. The manager is assisted by a county labor market board consisting of a chairman, appointed by the Minister of Labor, the placement office manager, and 15 other members—five nominated by the LO, five by the DEC after consultation with the local employers and trade organizations, and five by the county councils. The board acts as a coordinating body between the exchange and the local and regional authorities and committees concerned with labor.

The National Labor Board coordinates and promotes the labor market boards. It also states its opinion to the Labor Director before he submits to the Labor Minister his recommendations on structure, scope, and facilities of the placement service, including placement office managers. The National Board is composed of the Director of Labor as chairman and 17 other members—four nominated by the LO, four by the DEC, one by SALA, two by representatives of the unemployment funds, and one each by the Joint Council of Danish Associations of Civil Servants and Salaried Employees, and the Joint Committee of Danish Associations of Supervisors and Technical Employees, and one each by the Ministries of Housing, Commerce, Public Works, and Social Affairs.

In addition to serving as a clearing house and broker between job offerers and jobseekers the Labor Placement Offices are empowered to offer a variety of economic assistance to jobseekers: travel expense assistance, supplements for extra expenses in maintaining two households, transport aid, aid in finding housing and furnishings, and supplements to cover commuting costs. The public service derives additional strength from legislation requiring that members of a recognized unemployment insurance fund who become unemployed must apply immediately in person to the Labor Placement Office; only if they cannot be referred to an appropriate job are unemployment benefits payable.

Aliens from Scandinavian countries are hired under the same conditions as Danes, under common labor market arrangements between the Nordic countries. The arrangement permits entry without passports and hiring without the work permit required of non-Scandinavian aliens. Both the Danish Government and the trade union movement have a policy of curtailing the importation of non-Scandinavian labor, despite occasional shortages. Because of recent difficulties among non-Scandinavian aliens, the Government has instituted a threefold program to eliminate some of the problems: (1) New workers will be admitted only when jobs are awaiting them, (2) employers must provide adequate living quarters for all they hire, and (3) the LO has been asked to provide recreation facilities so workers can be occupied in their free time. Most foreign enterprises operating in Denmark have little difficulty gaining admittance for their own nationals or those of a third country in which they are operating.

Identification documents on job applicants generally are available. (See under Preemployment Inquiries.)

Notice Periods and Separations

Termination of employment is regulated by law and by collective agreements. Employees are protected legally against dismissal for engaging in trade union activity or military service, or because of marriage or pregnancy. Act No. 261 of June 1948, as amended in 1952 and 1954, governs termination of employment of salaried employees, excluding civil servants. Collective agreements provide the terms for other workers.

Act No. 261 defines salaried employees as shop and office assistants employed in buying and selling or in office work or equivalent stockroom duties, technical or clinical assistance personnel, and employees whose work con-

sists wholly or mainly of directing or supervising others. The act requires that an employee who wishes to leave must give his employer notice of 1 month. An employer must give the employee at least 1 month's notice during the first 6 months of employment and 3 months' notice if the employee has been employed for over 6 months; the period is increased 1 month for every 3 years of service, up to a maximum of 6 months. The notice must be given in writing and not later than the last day of the month preceding the beginning of the notice period, so that all terminations are at the end of a month. For trial appointments, which may not extend beyond 3 months, the employer must give at least 14 days notice of termination.

Act No. 261 provides for severance pay only if the termination is not deemed justified by the conduct of the employee or circumstances of the enterprise, and then only when the worker is 20 years of age or over and has been employed continuously in the enterprise for at least 1 year. For employees age 20–29, compensation need not exceed the employee's salary corresponding to one-half the period of notice; the law prescribes up to 3 months' salary for an employee age 30 years and over who has worked less than 10 years for the enterprise, 4 months for those who have 10–14 years of service, and 6 months for 15 years and over. These provisions also apply when a salaried employee terminates his employment because of a gross breach of contract by the employer. Act No. 261 also provides for compensation to the employer for losses incurred when an employee quits work without cause, or if the employer terminates the employment because of gross breach of contract by the employee. A salaried employee cannot be dismissed because of absence due to illness, unless he has a written agreement with the employer stating that, after 1 month's notice, he may be dismissed if he has received his salary during absence from sickness for 120 days during any 12 consecutive months.

Collective agreements covering workers other than salaried employees provide for considerably less favorable terms than those specified in Act No. 261, but are more detailed and broader in some aspects covered. Both sides still recognize the provisions of the Main Agreement regarding dismissals even though the Agreement is in abeyance. These provide that the employer's right to dismiss individual workers must not be exercised in an "arbitrary manner," and set forth machinery to be used by the worker or his organization challenging the dismissal. They call first for a discussion between local management and workers; this may be followed by negotiations at the national level, and, if the latter are unsuccessful, by hearings before a special board. Two members of the Supreme Court serve as chairman and umpire of this board. Awards for unjust dismissals may be as high as 13 weeks' wages. Under the September Agreement, the employer's right of dismissal had been unrestricted.

The collective agreement in the metal-processing industry provides that the number of days' notice given prior to separation of an employee shall be according to the following schedule:

	Days' notice required	
	By employer	*By worker*
After 1 year	14	7
After 3 years	28	7
After 5 years	35	10

Absence due to illness, child birth, or military service are not counted as work interruptions, nor is interruption of work because of machine stoppages or shortages of material. No worker may be discharged during the first 3 months of absence due to illness; termination notices cannot be given by either party during holidays; termination of employment during a holiday period requires 7 days' notice before the commencement of the holiday. The violator has to pay to the opposite party a penalty equaling the minimum time rate plus cost-of-living allowance for each working day the party was in violation. The agreement also contains detailed provisions concerning termination of employment for piece-time work.

Data are not available on notice periods and separations for civil servants.

Disciplinary Actions

Disciplinary actions are covered by both legislation and collective agreements. The latter restate and frequently supplement the laws, and contain rules (with penalties for violations) which are legally enforceable and binding. Friction between employees and supervisors

arising in the application of work rules set by collective agreements is reduced, however, by discussion of problems with management, especially the works council, before the problems become acute; thus disciplinary actions are not frequent.

Some laws have a separate section or chapter covering penalties or "inspection, penalties, etc.," which usually appears at or toward the end of the law, and frequently refers back to particular sections and paragraphs. This separate penalty coverage may be a general one against any person who acts in contravention of the law, or it may have paragraphs referring to the employer or the employee. In other legislation, the penalty provisions appear throughout the text of the law.

Penalties against employers in most cases are fines,[15] but some laws have penalty clauses calling for "fines or imprisonment," and some carry the statement "subject to fine unless more severe punishment is provided by other legislation." [16] Only in rare cases is the amount of fine given, usually in terms of an upper or lower limit; and the length of imprisonment, if indicated, is ordinarily an upper limit only.

Two laws provide for penalties against workers who violate rules on reporting for work, termination notices, or illness-connected absence. Act No. 261 concerning salaried employees entitles the employer to compensation for losses incurred when (1) an employee quits, or fails to start work, without good cause, or (2) employment is terminated because of the employee's gross breach of contract. Such compensation in the former instance is set at half a month's salary, except under special circumstances. Absence due to illness is unlawful if the employee contracted the disease intentionally or through negligence during the period of employment, or deliberately concealed the fact that he was suffering from the disease in question when he first reported for duty. An employee may be discharged without notice if after illness of more than 14 days he fails to provide the employer, should he so request, with further particulars from a medical specialist concerning the duration of the illness.

When agricultural and domestic workers who receive part of their pay in board fail to report for work or are dismissed for failure to report at the stipulated time they must pay the employer the following amounts: the equivalent of 1 month's wages if the contract was for 1 month, or of 2 months' wages if the contract was for more than 1 month (Act No. 156).

The employer is also entitled to demand compensation for any loss involved when a worker over age 18 receives notification of a date for callup for national civilian or military service and fails to notify the employer at once. No information is available concerning penalties against other wage earners for infractions of rules, other than those concerning health and safety as described under Health and Sanitation.

Chapter X. Hours of Work and Premiums

Hours of Work

A March 1969 agreement between the LO and the DEC, covering all wage and salary earners in the private sector, set weekly hours of work at 41 3/4 for the period September 1, 1970, to March 1, 1971. This continued the trend toward a shorter workweek which had reduced weekly hours from 48 in 1955 to 45 by 1965. (The reduction in the weekly hours to be worked implies a rise in hourly rates of pay—see below under Base Pay.) The decrease in working hours is being applied also to the public sector. The LO/DEC agreement for 1971–73 provides for a 40-hour week for workers on second or third shifts.

Collective agreements between management and labor federations or unions supplement the general agreement. They also make provisions

[15] E.g., in the case of the employer who fails to pay the annual leave remuneration, take out and keep up the payments on an industrial injuries insurance policy, or report a work accident; or who refuses to give a salaried employee a certificate of employment or advertises a job opening for a salaried employee without observing the law thereon.

[16] E.g., Act 226 of 1954 on occupational safety, health, and welfare (general).

for the timing of daily hours of work. For example, the 1969–71 collective agreement for mechanical engineering and metalworking industries provides that the management of each establishment shall set the normal daily working hours, after submitting its proposals to its workers. These hours shall be between 6 a.m. and 5. p.m., and intervals for lunch and rest shall total not less than 1/2 hour nor more than 2 hours. Five of the weekly workdays must be of the same length, and no workday may be shorter than 8 hours for a 5-day week or 7 hours for each of 5 days for a 6-day week. The reduction in working hours from 42 1/2 to 41 3/4 a week may be accomplished by granting a sufficient number of Saturdays off during the course of the year. Although the weekly average may not exceed 41 3/4 hours, weekly hours may vary, but no workweek may exceed 45 hours.

By law (Act No. 226, ch. 5; Act No. 227, ch. 5), workers in the private sector must be allowed a rest period of at least 11 consecutive hours in every period of 24 hours, except in certain stipulated cases. Special regulations apply to the bakery industry; exemptions in other industries are provided for accidents, breakdowns of machinery, and repairs. The rest period may be reduced to 8 hours for workers changing to another shift, in certain areas of the baking industry, and in storerooms; and generally to 9 consecutive hours for loading and unloading activities. Act No. 226 provides that the Minister of Labor, after consultation with certain top government officials, may regulate rest and driving periods for vehicle drivers in transport work.

Collective agreements usually govern overtime work. The 1969–71 metal-processing industry agreement provides that the extent of overtime "should as a rule be agreed upon between the representative of the employer and each individual worker in person." The agreement stipulates, however, that overtime shall not exceed 6 hours in any one week or 16 hours in any consecutive 4 weeks. Should urgent reasons require further overtime, joint permission of the management and the shop steward of the establishment is required; such overtime is "normally to be counterbalanced by compensatory leave within 6 months subsequent to the performance of the work."

Under Act No. 156 of 1961, which covers agricultural and domestic workers paid in part by board (or by board and lodging), the weekly and daily hours of work "shall not exceed the number of hours fixed by generally applicable agreements covering adult workers, or the number usually applying in towns or rural districts, as the case may be." If obliged to work additional hours as a result of disruptions caused by accident or natural phenomena, the employee shall have corresponding time off as soon as circumstances permit. If he is called on to do nightwork he shall have the same number of hours off the following day.

Provisions relating to hours of work in Act No. 226 do not apply to civil servants. Any general working rules which are not in conformity with those laid down in the Act must be approved by the Minister of Labor, who shall also decide whether and to what extent the hours-of-work regulations shall apply to public employees of local authorities. The shortening of the workweek to 41 3/4 hours for nongovernment workers was extended to civil servants also. Breaks are discounted only when over 30 minutes. With a practice of a 30-minute lunch hour, the effective workweek became 38 3/4 hours beginning September 1970. No information is available as to limits on the amount of overtime governing civil servants.

Closing hours for shops and warehouses are fixed by law at 5:30 p.m. for Mondays through Thursdays, at 8 p.m. for Fridays, and at 2 p.m. on Saturdays. Exemptions may be granted for Saturday closings, however, particularly for kiosks and stores in railway stations.

Nightwork

Nightwork is regulated chiefly by collective bargaining, although some legislation is in effect, e.g., that concerning the closing of shops (Act No. 264 of June 10, 1970) and, to some degree, Acts Nos. 226, 227, and 228 of 1954, as amended. These acts decree that adult workers have a rest period of 11 consecutive hours in every 24-hour period, but do not specify except for bakeries when these shall be taken. In bakeries "the rest period shall include the hours between 8 p.m. and 4 a.m.," but legislation permits numerous exceptions to this stipulation. The acts also provide that the Labor

Inspection Service may permit departure from the "11-hour" provision.

Young people under 18 years of age in most cases must be allowed 12 consecutive hours out of each 24 for night rest. Generally, such young people may not work (1) between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m. in manufacturing and handicraft, transport, and building and construction industries (except for vocational trainees of 16–18 years of age in continuous operations such as ironworks, steelworks, glassworks, paper mills, and raw sugar factories); or (2) between 8 p.m. and 4 a.m. in workships of bakeries and confectioneries, and 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. in dairies. In several other types of enterprises young people may not start work before 6 a.m., but their evening quitting time varies. Young people aged 16–18 may work as late as midnight in hotels, "public houses," inns, etc, (10 p.m. for those ages 14–16); those under 18 in distribution centers and warehouses may work until 10 p.m. or "after the hour in the evening prescribed by the legislation in force for the closing of such premises to the public."

Overtime Premium

Danish legislation, like that in Sweden, omits any general regulation of overtime pay, on the principle that this should be settled in collective bargaining.

According to official sources, overtime premiums on weekdays are normally 25 percent of the regular hourly pay for the first hour, 33 percent for the second, 55 percent for the third, and 100 percent for the fourth, and on Sundays and holidays 100 percent although sometimes only 50 percent is paid for Sunday and holiday hours before noon. Nonofficial sources claim, however, that many companies do not grant overtime premiums to all their workers. They state that premiums are given only to workers who are unionized and that middle- and upper-level employees seldom benefit.

Overtime premium rates in the metal-processing industries are higher than the norm. According to the 1969–71 agreement they were as follows, in Danish kroner per hour:

	Adult males	*Adult females*
Weekdays		
After hours		
1st and 2d hours	3.40	3.00
3d and 4th hours	5.50	4.60
5th hour and thereafter	11.00	9.20
Before normal hours		
Between 6 a.m. and 5 p.m.	6.80	6.00
Between 5 p.m. and 6 a.m.	11.00	9.20
Weekday holiday		
Between 6 a.m. and 5 p.m.	6.80	5.30
Between 5 p.m. and 6 a.m.	11.00	9.20
Sundays and holidays		
Beginning of normal day to 12 noon	8.00	6.60
12 noon till beginning of normal hours	11.00	9.20
Sunday morning preceding beginning of normal working hours	11.00	9.20
During meal interval when displaced by more than ½ hour	4.50	4.50

Thus, the overtime premiums for male workers, as a percentage of normal base pay (not including cost-of-living allowance), amounted to 62.8 percent for the first 2 hours, 101.7 percent for the second 2 hours, and 203.3 percent (1) for any hours over 4 during normal after-hours, (2) for work before normal hours or during a weekday holiday performed during the period 5 p.m. to 6 a.m., or (3) on Sundays and holidays after 12 noon or on a Sunday morning preceding a normal workday. Compared with base pay plus cost-of-living allowance, however, the overtime premiums are only 33.7 percent, 54.5 percent, and 109.0 percent, respectively.

In the civil service, compensatory time off is usually given for overtime, at the rate of time and one-third. However, if compensatory time off is not granted within the next following month or if overtime exceeds 11 hours within any one month, overtime payment at one and one-third normal pay, in lieu of compensatory time off, must be paid.

Paid Leave

Special legislation on annual leave with pay was introduced in 1938. It has been developed further through subsequent legislation, culminating in two Acts: Act No. 273 of June 1970 covers practically all wage and salary earners except civil servants; and Act No. 156 of May 1961 covers those agricultural and domestic workers who receive part of their remuneration as board. Under these acts, employees accumulate paid annual leave at the rate

of 1 1/2 days per month, for a maximum of 3 weeks a "leave" year (April 1 to March 31). Civil servants under age 50 also earn 3 weeks' annual leave a year; those age 50 and over earn 4 weeks annually. Collective agreements contain clauses restating the legislation; however, the new 1971–73 LO-DEC agreement provides that annual leave will be increased by 3 days beginning March 1, 1972, and to 4 weeks beginning March 1, 1973. The legislation governing public sector employees is being changed to conform with this new practice.

The law requires every person entitled to annual leave, with few exceptions, to take the number of days of leave to which he is entitled. Any agreement waiving the right to paid leave under Act 273 is null and void, and the employer entering into such an agreement is liable to a fine. Also, if an employee works for remuneration during his annual leave, he forfeits his right to leave pay for the entire leave period.

Annual leave is taken according to schedules agreed to between employers and unions or individuals; however, Act No. 273 sets certain restrictions on the timing of the leave. When the accrued leave of the nonagricultural worker is of 12 days or less, it must be given, and taken, at one time, during the "leave season" (May 2 to September 30). The days in excess of 12 must also be given at one time except when rendered unfeasible by production requirements. An employer may close his establishment and give his entire work force annual leave at one time, but he must abide by certain restrictions to protect the interest of the workers. Agricultural workers must be given at least 6 days, at one time, during the "leave season," and at least 6 days of the additional leave at one time. The remainder of leave may be given as single days, but three of these must fall between May 1 and October 31. The timing of the leave for agricultural and domestic workers paid partly in board (Act No. 156) differs only slightly. Excepted from the regulations requiring that at least part of the leave be taken during the "leave season" are the military and persons employed aboard ships.

Most workers are legally entitled to paid sick leave of up to 3 months' in any one year. Act No. 273 provides that this leave shall be granted to every worker after 3 days' absence due to illness, provided he has been employed in an enterprise for as much as 1 year. No waiting period is required, however, if the leave results from a job-related injury and he has been employed by the employer for 6 consecutive days when the injury occurs. A Danish civil servant's employment normally will not be terminated until after 1 year of illness. If he has worked 3 consecutive years (2 for persons aged 50 and over) during which he has taken no more than 5 weeks' sick leave, his pay will not be reduced until he has been out on sick leave for 30 weeks (42 weeks for those age 50 and over).

Civil servants receive normal pay during annual leave, and an annual leave bonus of 1 1/2 percent of total annual pay. Other salaried employees generally receive their normal pay during vacation or sick leave, and are also entitled during the vacation period to a holiday supplement amounting to three-fourths of 1 percent of the total salary on which the leave is based. The worker whose normal pay does not continue during the vacation or sick period, primarily the wage worker paid by the day or week or by piece rate, is entitled to 6 1/2 percent of his total earnings for the previous year (previous month for computation of sick leave pay) plus the three-fourths of 1 percent holiday premium during the vacation period.

Act No. 273 provides that payment of the vacation pay for nongovernment workers shall be accomplished by a leave stamp plan administered by the Post Office, unless equally favorable arrangements are otherwise provided. Concerns, trades, or occupations may have and administer their own plans, covered in a collective agreement. Civil service or other government service rules generally cover state and local government employees.

Available information does not indicate that any overall labor laws or collective agreements require employers to grant paid maternity leave for female workers. Act No. 226 of June 1954, as amended during 1956–68, hints that such legislation has been under consideration, by the statement "until such time as new statutory provision may be made regarding the right of women workers to maternity leave . . .," but apparently as yet none has been passed. Female employees covered by Act No. 261 on salaried employees, however, are entitled to

partially paid maternity leave. The act requires that the employer pay a woman salaried employee one half of her salary "for up to 5 months as from the commencement of her in-capacity for work (but not more than 3 months before confinement) until 3 months after confinement." The same obligation pertains if the employer, notwithstanding the fact that the employee is not incapacitated for work, "does not consider it possible for him to employ her."

For a description of daily allowances received by employed persons on leave due to sickness or confinement, see General Social Insurance System.

Periodic Rest Day Premium

Sunday is the traditional weekly day of rest for Danish employees. Act No. 226—the Occupational Safety, Health, and Welfare (General) Act—prohibits employment of workers between 10 p.m. on Saturday, or on an evening preceding a statutory holiday, and 8 a.m. on Monday, or on the day following the holiday. Excepted from these provisions are those industries or activities which, in the public interest, cannot be shut down, such as transportation and communications; public utilities, museums, and health, religious, fire fighting, police, and guard services; hotels and restaurants, bakeries, dairies, and care of animals and plants; and work considered indispensable in order to prevent damage to plant, machinery, raw materials, or products. In addition, the Minister of Labor is empowered, but only insofar as necessary, to grant exemptions from the prohibition of employment on Sundays in special cases. The act stipulates that, insofar as possible, time off for a corresponding number of hours during normal hours of work shall be granted to compensate for the rest period a worker may lose through work on Sunday.

Collective agreements implement the legal provisions and regulate payment for work on Sundays and other days of rest. Work rules under the 1969–71 mechanical engineering and metalworkers agreement provide that work shall be planned to permit the "best possible Sunday freedom." For work on Sunday and holidays, these rules provide for premiums of DKr8.00 per hour for males and DKr6.60 per hour for females for work from the beginning of the daily normal working hours until 12 noon, and of DKr11.00 and DKr9.20, respectively, from 12 noon until the beginning of the normal working hours or for the Sunday morning preceding the beginning of the daily working hours. (See also Overtime Premiums.)

Holiday Premiums

Work on statutory holidays by employees in industry, crafts, building and construction, laboratories, and transport, and in storerooms and warehouses is prohibited by Act No. 226 of 1954. The Act stipulates that the holiday must be of 24 hours, within the period from 10 p.m. on the evening preceding the holiday and 8 a.m. following the holiday. Act 227 requires that the 24-hour period begin before the hour the worker normally begins work. Both Acts prohibit work on Constitution Day after 12 noon. Numerous exceptions to these provisions, however, are contained in both acts.

The following 13 dates are observed nationally as holidays. However, two of these, Christmas and New Year's Eves, are only half-day holidays, beginning at noon, and are granted by custom, not by law. Labor Day also is not a statutory holiday, and government offices and commercial undertakings do not close, but industrial establishments and banks generally do.

New Year's Day	January 1
Maundy Thursday	Variable
Good Friday	Variable
Easter Monday	Variable
Labor Day [1]	May 1
Prayer Day	Variable (May 7 in 1971)
Ascension Day	Variable
Whitmonday	Variable
Constitution Day (½ day)	June 5
Christmas Eve (½ day) [1]	December 24
Christmas Day	December 25
Day after Christmas	December 26
New Year's Eve (½ day) [1]	December 31

[1] Not statutory.

Salaried workers, including civil servants, who work on an approved holiday usually are granted compensatory time but no holiday bonus.

Collective agreements usually contain clauses restating and frequently extending the statutory provisions regarding holidays; many of them also grant a holiday bonus for work on

statutory holidays or other holidays covered in the agreement. The 1969–71 agreement covering the metal-processing industry, for example, states that beyond holidays on weekdays "as are at any time prescribed by law, May 1st shall be considered a whole day off," and Constitution Day as 1/2 day off beginning at 12 noon; it also provides for time off to participate in funerals and to vote in municipal and *Folketing* elections. In addition, it provides that for work on holidays, the following bonuses ('allowances") in kroner per hour worked, shall be paid:

	Adult males	*Adult females*
From the beginning of the daily normal hours till 12 noon	8.00	6.60
From 12 noon till the beginning of the normal working hours	11.00	9.20

Chapter XI. Wages and Supplemental Payments

Base Pay

Denmark has no minimum wage law nor any other general legislation regulating the level of wages, although there is special legislation regarding compensation for leave and payments in the form of social insurance. (See Accident and Occupational Disease Compensation and General Social Insurance System.) As in Sweden, determination of wages by negotiation and collective agreement is preferred, and such arrangements are highly developed; this principle extends even to civil servants, although such negotiations eventually culminate in a legislative enactment of pay rates for this group of workers. Cost-of-living allowances form an important part of total pay; they frequently equal, and in some cases exceed base pay. As a matter of fact, in Denmark the term "base pay" is generally understood as a combination of base pay and cost-of-living allowances, and carries this meaning in all official statistics. Throughout this section it will have that meaning unless otherwise indicated. The only actual figures available which show base pay excluding cost-of-living allowance are those in the metal industry agreement.

A basic national wage pattern is established by central wage negotiations between the Danish Employers' Confederation and the Danish Federation of Labor (LO), which are held every 2 years. Within this framework, wages in individual industries are established by negotiation between their constituent organizations. Affiliated enterprises then work out agreements with their workers on the basis of the industry agreement.

Collective agreements fix rates as time rates (hourly, daily, weekly, monthly, or annual) or as piece rates. Since 1930, the proportion between hours worked on time rates and on piecework has been fairly constant at 60:40, but certain branch and industry variations can be found.

Base pay in Denmark generally is related to the level of responsibility, difficulty, and hazards of the job, as well as to qualifications, education, skill, sex, and age. Length of service is also a factor, especially in government service. Women in most cases are paid less than men for similar work. Some narrowing of the gap between the pay of the two sexes has been apparent during recent years, and there is considerable agitation for closing it entirely, as well as for opening up higher ranking jobs for women and jobs for which women have traditionally been considered less suitable than men.

Two different wage systems are used in Danish industry: the standard-wage and the minimum-wage system. According to the standard-wage system, all workers are paid the wage stipulated in the collective agreement, and only in special cases can exceptions be made. Collective agreements utilizing the standard-wage system, however, usually provide "for payment on special jobs, such as difficult or dirty work, bonuses for work at a certain height and for dangerous work, as well as bonuses for work in particularly cold weather, and many other types of special-job payment." In recent years, job evaluation has been used by some companies (e.g., in the pharmaceutical and cigarette-manufacturing industries), to fix the job payment in a more systematic manner; payment

based on job evaluation forms only a part of the wage—usually 10–15 percent of the total wage.

The minimum-wage system, which is also called the flexible wage system, is based upon the idea that the wage fixed in the collective agreement is only a lower limit whereas the wage for specialized workers is fixed in each individual case as a personal wage, which as a rule is substantially higher than the minimum wage. The metal industry agreement utilizes the flexible, or minimum, wage system. The General Rules for Time Rates of its 1969–71 agreement lists the minimums and then provides that the wage of each worker "is arranged by individual agreement between the employer or his representative and the worker without interference from the Trade Union or its members"; the Special Rules for Time Rates provide for special rates or for negotiations of additional wages in many instances—hazardous construction work, use of own tools and transport, furnace stokers, etc.

The 1969–71 agreement for the metal industry provided for general minimum rates per hour for time workers, divided into several categories; increases were stipulated for March 1, 1970, and September 1, 1970. The September 1970 rates of minimum base pay listed, and the cost-of-living allowances which became effective September 7, 1969, were as follows, in kroner per hour:

	Total	*Minimum base pay*	*Cost-of-living allowance*
All adult males and adult skilled females	10.09	5.41	4.68
Unskilled females age 18 and over	8.98	4.37	4.61
Unskilled females under 18 and males age 16–18	3.80	2.07	1.73
Males age 14–16	3.55	1.82	1.73

NOTE: DKr1=US$0.133.

The minimum base pay was set at the same rate for all adult males regardless of skill. On the other hand, adult females received this same rate if skilled, but 20 percent less if unskilled. This lower rate was about 5 percent below the cost-of-living allowance applicable to this group. (For a discussion of cost-of-living allowances, see Supplemental Payments.)

With regard to piecework rates, the metal industry agreement of 1969–71 states that such rates shall be established between the employer and the worker or workers at the plant. If no agreement is reached, the shop steward may be summoned to participate in the negotiations. If agreement still is not obtained, the rate shall be 15 percent less than the local average of the group of workers in the establishment during the preceding quarter, but not less than the general minimum contained in the agreement. When piecework rates are fixed by time studies, these "must be established on the basis of a local agreement as directed by agreement between the organizations."

Average wages of workers in building and construction are higher than those paid in most manufacturing industries. In the third quarter of 1969, average hourly earnings for adult building and construction workers (DKr15.76) were exceeded only by those in the graphic industry (DKr16.69). (See table 9.) Beverages (DKr15.31) and the transport equipment manufacturing (DKr14.82) were also high-paying industries. Average earnings were lowest in the food (DKr11.97), tobacco (DKr11.10), textile (DKr11.37), and footwear and clothing (DKr11.22) industries. Whereas DKr13.18 (in the food industry) was the lowest average for men, wages for females exceeded DKr11.00 only in the beverage (DKr13.40), graphics (DKr11.68), and stone, clay, and glass (DKr11.24) industries. Average earnings of young people aged 14–18 years were about half, or less than half, those of adults; and were highest for those employed in the rubber and chemical industries, and lowest in transport-equipment manufacturing.

TABLE 9. AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS [1] FOR ADULT WORKERS IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES, JULY–SEPTEMBER 1969

[In Danish kroner [2]]

Industry [3]	Average	Male	Female
Building and construction	15.76	15.76	..
Manufacturing			
Food	11.97	13.18	10.40
Beverage	15.31	16.03	13.42
Tobacco	11.10	13.30	10.47
Textile	11.37	12.79	10.21
Footwear and clothing	11.22	13.50	10.75
Wood manufacturing	13.83	14.03	10.18
Furniture	13.49	13.88	10.75
Paper	13.37	14.42	11.00
Graphic	16.69	17.52	11.68
Leather and leather products	12.27	13.45	10.69
Rubber	12.83	13.84	10.30
Chemical	12.75	13.29	10.31
Oil and coal products	13.69	13.80	10.70
Stone, clay, and glass	13.89	13.62	11.24
Metal, and metal products	13.75	14.33	10.60
Transport equipment	14.82	14.85	9.62
Miscellaneous	12.40	13.55	10.42

[1] Includes cost-of-living allowances and overtime pay. Excludes vacation allowance and payment for church festival days.

[2] DKr1=US$0.133.

[3] International Standard Industrial Classifications.

SOURCE: Denmark, Danish Statistical Office, *Statistik Årbog 1971* (Statistical Yearbook 1971), p. 319.

TABLE 10. AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS AND INDUSTRIES, 1969

[In Danish kroner [1]]

Occupation	Total	Base pay [2]	Vacation and other additional pay [3]
SKILLED MALE WORKERS			
Bricklayers	20.76	18.78	1.98
Lithographers	19.67	17.39	2.28
Carpenters	19.04	17.21	2.17
Joiners	18.82	17.02	1.80
Typographers	18.53	16.02	2.51
Plumbers	18.27	16.12	2.15
Bookbinders	18.01	16.14	1.87
Painters	17.65	15.96	1.69
Moulders	17.48	15.73	1.75
Upholsterers	17.38	15.72	1.66
Electricians	17.36	15.53	1.83
Smiths and mechanics	16.84	14.99	1.85
Ships carpenters	16.46	14.70	1.76
Gold- and silversmiths	16.09	14.58	1.51
Mechanical joiners	15.75	14.24	1.51
Cabinetmakers	15.75	14.23	1.52
Shoemakers	15.22	13.75	1.47
Cigarmakers	12.74	11.46	1.28
UNSKILLED MALE WORKERS			
Printing workers	17.92	15.18	2.74
Brewery workers	16.61	14.09	2.52
Earth and concrete workers	16.35	14.69	1.66
Hodmen	16.32	14.77	1.55
Dockworkers	16.15	14.42	1.73
Workers in ceramic industry	16.05	14.22	1.83
Rubber industry workers	14.92	13.22	1.60
Workers in paper industry	14.88	12.32	2.56
Glass workers	14.77	12.00	2.77
Tile workers	14.51	12.81	1.70
Metal industry workers	14.31	12.69	1.62
Cement workers	14.05	11.74	2.31
Oil industry workers	14.04	12.22	1.82
Textile workers	13.66	11.87	1.79
Enginemen in wood industry	13.51	12.10	1.41
Other workers in wood industry	13.21	11.67	1.54
Drivers	13.05	11.58	1.47
Workers in sugar industry	13.05	11.37	1.68
Warehouse workers	12.77	11.38	1.39
FEMALE WORKERS			
Brewery workers	14.58	12.26	2.32
Workers in ceramic industry	13.24	11.97	1.27
Bookbinders	12.53	11.22	1.31
Paper goods industry workers	12.19	10.80	1.39
Seamstresses	12.06	10.92	1.14
Cardboard industry workers	11.72	10.47	1.25
Chocolate industry workers	11.67	10.32	1.35
Metal industry workers	11.60	10.32	1.28
Rubber industry workers	11.15	9.98	1.17
Cigarmakers (unskilled)	11.15	10.03	1.12
Textile workers	11.08	9.81	1.27
Footwear industry workers	10.94	9.90	1.04
Cleaning workers	10.63	9.60	1.03
Laundry workers	10.36	9.38	.98

[1] DKr1=US$0.133.

[2] Base pay and cost-of-living allowance combined.

[3] Excludes overtime.

SOURCE: Denmark, Danish Statistical Office, *Statistik Arbog 1971* (Statistical Yearbook 1971), p. 320.

There is a fairly wide spread (about 60 percent) in base pay plus cost-of-living allowance between the highest and lowest paid occupations among skilled workers; the spread among unskilled male workers and female workers is apparently little more than 30 percent. Base pay of male skilled workers, including cost-of-living allowances, ranged in 1969 from DKr11.46 (for cigarmakers) to DKr18.78 (for bricklayers); of unskilled male workers, from DKr11.37 (for workers in the sugar industry) to DKr15.18 (for printing workers); and of female workers, from DKr9.38 (for laundry workers) to DKr12.26 (for brewery workers). In the ceramics industry, the DKr11.97 for females compares with DKr14.22 for unskilled male workers. Unskilled males in the rubber and metal industries averaged DKr13.22 and DKr12.69 respectively, compared with DKr9.98 and DKr10.32 for females. (See table 10).

The only up-to-date information available on salaries of clerical and other office personnel in private industry are those of October 1970 for a major commercial bank. In 1970, salaries of this bank's general officeworkers and clerks, paid according to age, ranged from DKr16,727 annually for the unskilled officeworker age 18 years to DKr51,217 for a junior cashier age 33, as shown in thousands of Danish kroner per year, including cost-of-living allowances:

	Officeworkers		*Bank clerks*		
Age	Unskilled	Experienced	Basic	Trained	Junior cashier
18 years	16.7	24.8	...	...	...
21 years	24.4	27.5	27.9	...	...
24 years	28.8	31.3	32.5	34.5	40.8
27 years	29.4	35.1	36.7	38.5	44.7
30 years	30.8	37.1	39.9	41.2	47.5
33 years	31.7	38.5	42.6	43.9	51.2
36 years	33.1	39.9	44.6	47.7	[1]

[1] Automatic transfer upward.

NOTE: DKr1=US$0.133.

The bank's officials and head clerks are paid according to seniority in class; in 1970 their salaries were as follows, in thousands of kroner per year, also including cost-of-living allowances:

Year	*Head clerks and junior officials*	*Officials*	*Senior officials*	
			Class II	*Class I*
1st	57.2	73.4	96.0	122.9
4th	59.7	77.0	99.8	128.4
7th	62.6	80.6	104.0	133.3
10th	65.1	84.2	107.8	138.8
13th	68.7	87.8	111.5	143.7
16th	...	91.4	115.6	147.9

NOTE: DKr1=US$0.133.

Table 11 shows that money wages for permanent hired workers in agriculture, which are slightly higher during the peak months of agricultural activity (November–April, in-

clusive, for cattlemen, and May–October, inclusive, for regular farmhands), vary according to position and age group. Farm laborers age 16 and under receive wages about 30–35 per cent less than those age 17–20, who in turn average 3–10 percent less than those age 21 and over.

TABLE 11. AVERAGE MONEY-WAGES OF AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYEES, 1969–70 AND 1970–71

[In Danish kroner [1]]

Category	Half-year engagement				Whole-year engagement, November–October	
	May–October		November–April			
	1969	1970	1969–70	1970–71	1969–70	1970–71
Cattlemen 21 years and over	8,986	10,062	9,079	11,155	18,575	22,119
Farm foreman	8,711	[2]	[2]	[2]	16,755	[2]
Farmhands (average)	6,399	7,295	6,077	7,023	12,833	14,533
Under 17 years	4,618	5,367	4,212	4,903	9,701	10,399
17–20 years	6,772	7,631	6,580	7,753	13,830	16,288
21 years and over	7,413	8,490	7,143	8,190	14,232	15,489

[1] DKr1=US$0.133.
[2] Not available.

SOURCE: Denmark, Danish Statistical Office, *Statistik Årbog 1970* (Statistical Yearbook 1970), p. 315, and *Statistik Årbog 1971* (Statistical Yearbook 1971), p. 317.

The compensation and classification of Danish central government employees is established by law, currently Act B No. 13 of June 18, 1969. The act recognizes the bargaining rights of certain national unions of civil servants, and, in principle, civil servants' pay must be negotiated with these unions. However, when the two parties cannot agree, the issue is decided by the *Folketing*, which generally will adopt the Government's bill.

The basic schedule for civil servants consists of 52 pay rates arranged in 40 brackets; automatic "in-grade" promotions are granted every 2 years up to a maximum of six in the lower grades. A post differential is paid to compensate for the higher cost of living in greater Copenhagen and other urban areas. The differential is graduated according to the level of the basic salary rate; it is not paid to persons in the upper 10 brackets. The combined basic and post differential pay is subject to semiannual adjustment according to the cost-of-living index which uses 1963 as a base period. The adjustment rate in effect in 1969 was 33 percent; it rose 3 percent by April 1970, and was expected to rise another 6 percent by October 1, 1970. Thus it would raise the base pay and the post differentials 42 percent above 1963.

The latest data available on actual base pay for Danish civil servants are those for 1969, which show a range from DKr16,400 to DKr100,978 a year, but later data on salaries including allowances are available. The Government reached an agreement with the civil servants' organizations in May 1970 to adjust rates upwards in April 1970 and further in October 1970. According to this agreement the annual net take-home pay including allowances, beginning October 1, 1970, was DKr27,183–110,382.

The same pay levels and pay practices are expected from foreign employers operating in Denmark as from Danish employers. The American Embassy in Denmark as in other foreign countries bases it pay scales for local employees on those prevailing in the Danish civil service.

Supplemental Payments

Supplemental pay as an addition to base pay consists primarily of cost-of-living allowances but also includes various other smaller payments. Cost-of-living allowances usually are cited separately from base pay in the collective agreements but are included as part of base pay in the official statistics. In the official statistics, other smaller supplementary payments usually are lumped together as "vacation and other additional pay, excluding overtime."

Utilizing January 1963 as a base, the Bureau of Labor Statistics computes and publishes the cost-of-living index semiannually (in January and July), as required by Act No. 83 of March 1963. Pay must be adjusted on April 1 and October 1, by 3 percent for each 3 percent fluctuation in the index as announced the previous January and July, respectively. Points in excess of a 3-percent step are transferred to the next period. The average cost-of-living allowances provided in the metalworkers agreement of 1969–71 were close to the minimum time rates. In 1969–70 (after the July 1969 index had reached 134), the allowances for most time-rated workers were only about 8–9 percent below, and for adult unskilled females were about 12 percent higher than the minimum wage levels, as shown below in Danish kroner per hour:

	Allowances, September 1969	*Minimum wage, March 1970*
All adult male workers	4.68	5.07
Skilled female workers above 18 years	4.68	5.07
Unskilled female workers above 18	4.61	4.11
Electrician apprentices	.05	(1)
Other apprentices	.25	(1)
All other workers under 18	1.73	
Female workers under 18		1.89
Male workers age 16–18		1.89
Male workers age 14–16		1.64

[1] Not available.

By July 1970 the cost-of-living index had reached 139 and by January 1971 had further increased to 142. For the past several years, the Government has been actively considering measures other than the index-tied wage adjustments to combat the wage-price spiral. Agreement among government, management, and trade union officials as to a substitute but equitable means of solving the problem had not been reached as of mid-1971.

Supplemental payments include the value of lodgings and meals which employers customarily provide workers in such occupations as seafaring and agriculture. Collective agreements usually stipulate that supplemental pay be provided for hardships, commuting distances, and use of workers' own tools. For example, the metalworkers' agreement provides that clauses in enterprise agreements should cover allowances for special cases, such as extraordinarily dirty work or the tending of several machines; when regular furnacemen serve as melting furnace stokers they shall receive DKr2.70 a day in addition to the regular time rate. The agreement also stipulates a DKr0.15 an hour supplemental allowance to specified categories of employees (e.g., joiners, carpenters, coachmakers, and millwrights) for the use of their own tools. It further accords employees required to work at places other than their regular workplace additional pay for any extra time required and payment for use of their own vehicles in the service of the enterprise. (See Travel and Transportation Expenses.)

Post differentials are granted by firms having operations in various parts of the country. These customarily are buried in the regular base pay schedules negotiated at local levels; for example, wages in various industries average around 10–25 percent higher in Copenhagen than in the rest of the country. The Danish civil service pays its employees in the first 12 brackets a post differential of 15 percent in the Copenhagen metropolitan area, of 10 percent in the Northeast Zealand area, and of 5 percent in selected city areas. These rates decline beginning with bracket 13 and disappear entirely after bracket 39. Differentials for Copenhagen and Northeast Zealand are maintained throughout at three and two times, respectively, those for the other city areas.

Some enterprises provide a variety of other types of fringe benefits. For example, a major commercial bank offers, to both clerical and advanced personnel, education leave, tuition fees and books, study travel, cheap restaurant facilities, and holiday camps and cottages.

Withholdings and Deductions

Customary withholdings and deductions from employee earnings include income taxes and social security contributions authorized by law, and other deductions authorized by collective agreements. Before January 1970 income taxes were not withheld from salaries and wages, though such had been under consideration for some years. Beginning January 1, 1970, however, a PAYE (Pay as You Earn) system has been in effect and employers are required, by the Withholding Tax Act, to withhold taxes from the paychecks of their employees. The act applies not only to the Federal income tax but also to the municipal income tax (which varies according to location and is highest in Copenhagen), the church tax (which in 1967–68 represented about 4.3 percent of the municipal tax), and the national pension contribution (3 percent of taxable income).

Employers also are required to withhold from every paycheck the employee's part (one-third of the total; employers contribute two-thirds) of the workers' supplementary pension contribution (Labor Market Supplementary Pension Act of March 7, 1964). The total contribution is turned over to the pension fund quarterly. This pension is commonly referred to as ATP (*Arbejdsmarketets Tillaegspension*). (See Other Insurance and Retirement Systems.)

Collective agreements covering piecework employees usually contain clauses which permit employers to withhold and/or delay wages in cases of discharge. For example, the 1969–

71 metalworkers' agreement recognized the right of employers not to pay a worker discharged for cause, whether engaged in "single" or "common" piecework, for the piecework he was engaged in at the time of discharge, and to delay payment of his part on any other piecework until its completion and the terms were settled. The right to delay payment also applies (1) in case of discharge for reasons for which the worker cannot be blamed, and (2) to workers who leave the workshop according to an agreement with the employers. The metalworker on single piecework who leaves the workshop without the employer's consent and without an urgent reason, forfeits his remaining wages, if any, and his right to payment for all piecework started. However, he retains his right to the part of his wages comprising the cost-of-living allowance.

Optional deductions and withholdings are fairly rare, and require the written authorization of the employee. Such withholdings do occur, for example, to cover payment of loans granted by an employer or credit union, or payment of charges incurred at company stores and cafeterias. There is no union dues checkoff system.

Pay Changes

Pay changes are primarily based on a worker's performance and the degree of responsibility he assumes on the job. Employers encourage their workers to improve existing skills to qualify for higher pay. As wages normally are renegotiated every 2 years at the general collective-bargaining time, the employer expects to grant a pay raise at that time to the worker who has increased his efficiency or assumed more responsibility. This practice holds true for the time-rated and especially the piecework-rated wage worker as well as for some salaried employees.

For the salaried employee, however, pay increases for length of service are more common, and pay based on age occurs in both wage-rated and salaried employment. Persons on salary generally receive an automatic pay increase at specific intervals, usually every 2 years. This practice is followed in the civil service. In one of the major banks, however, the interval for officials is 3 years. On the other hand, general officeworkers and clerks in this bank receive higher pay as they become older, as do many hired workers in agriculture. (See Base Pay.)

Travel and Transportation Expenses

Travel and transportation allowances usually are covered by collective agreement; the only group of employees covered by law, and then only for travel expenses, are salaried employees.

Public transportation, through the country and within the cities, is excellent, so that employers as a rule are not required either by law or collective agreement to assume costs of employee transportation to and from the regular worksite. Some collective agreements do, however, provide for transportation allowances for "outside" work (defined as work outside the workshop or the working place where the worker was engaged, provided his work does not necessitate an overnight stay away from his home). For example, the 1969–71 metal-processing agreement provides for transportation allowances of at least 1 hour at the established time rate when the distance between the regular worksite and the working place is 1–3 kilometers, 2 hours for 3–5 kilometers, and 3 hours for 5–7 kilometers; minimums are set at DKr3, DKr6, and DKr9, respectively. The same time rates apply to workers using their own motor vehicles in the service of their employer, who receive per-kilometer allowances as follows: DKr0.5 for an automobile, DKr0.4 for motorcycle with sidecar, DKr0.35 for motorcycle, and DKr0.2 for motorbike. If transportation is provided by the employer, transportation time is remunerated at the normal rate, including the cost-of-living allowance, if performed during regular working hours, but excluding the allowance if outside those hours.

Travel time and work performed while in travel status (i.e., on official business trips or preparing therefor) usually are remunerated at the normal rate plus cost-of-living allowance. Some collective agreements, for example, the one covering the metal-processing industry, carry this stipulation, but also provide that (as for employer-provided-transportation time) cost-of-living allowance is not applicable to actual time traveling if performed outside normal hours. This collective agreement stipulates a DKr3 an hour minimum, however, and for

traveling during the period from midnight Saturday to midnight Sunday, a DKr5 an hour minimum. Travel time counts from the time the worker leaves the workshop for necessary preparations for the journey, or if outside normal working hours the time spent for local transportation plus 2 hours for preparation for travel.

Travel costs are usually reimbursable. The above-mentioned agreement provides for reimbursement for board and lodging while in travel status, based on the level of expenditure at the place visited; for travel work lasting fewer than 8 days, travel expenses are paid against receipted bills, "unless otherwise agreed."

Act No. 261 provides that work in the service of an employer entailing expenses for travel, subsistence away from home, and the like entitles the salaried employee to payment of all necessary expenses. The employer shall be required to advance the employee a suitable amount for payment of such expenses. The foregoing applies even where, under the contract, such expenses are to be paid out of the agreed salary or commission but the sales effected are insufficient to cover normal expenses.

Civil servants in travel status receive their regular pay plus per diem and transportation costs. The per diem for a senior civil servant is approximately DKr100 a day; the amount is slightly reduced for middle and lower grade employees.

Total Compensation and Costs

Detailed data on total compensation and labor costs are not available. Table 12 shows average hourly earnings for 305,400 male skilled and unskilled workers and female workers in the manufacturing industry in 1969, including cost-of-living allowance, overtime and late-shift supplementary pay, and vacation aliowances and payment for church festival days. (See Base Pay.) According to these data, total hourly wages averaged DKr15.42 for all workers—DKr17.89 for skilled and DKr15.03 for unskilled male workers, and DKr11.64 for female workers. Total compensation, excluding overtime, for a larger segment of the labor force in 1969 ranged from an average of DKr10.36 per hour for female laundry workers, to DKr20.76 for skilled male bricklayers. (See table 10.)

TABLE 12. AVERAGE WAGES IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, 1969

[In Danish kroner [1]]

Category	Average for all workers	Male workers			Female workers
		Total	Skilled	Unskilled	
Average hourly wages [2] (in kroner)	15.42	16.15	17.89	15.03	11.64
Base pay plus cost-of-living allowance	13.40	14.00	15.65	12.93	10.30
Piecework pay	15.37	16.26	17.48	15.27	11.24
Time pay	12.16	12.62	14.27	11.70	9.61
Supplements (total)	.59	.65	.58	.70	.25
Overtime	.34	.39	.35	.41	.08
Late shift	.17	.18	.10	.22	.15
Vacation allowances and payments for church festival days	1.43	1.50	1.66	1.40	1.09
Average number of workers [3] (in thousands)	305.4	246.6	96.0	150.6	58.8
Piecework hours as a percent of total hours	38.5	37.9	43.2	34.5	42.0
Overtime hours as a percent of total hours	4.7	5.3	4.2	6.1	1.4

[1] DKr1=US$0.133.
[2] Wage data are weighted arithmetic averages.
[3] Insured members of trade union funds.

SOURCE: Denmark, Danish Statistical Office, *Statistik Årbog 1971* (Statistical Yearbook 1971), p. 318.

The Danish Employers' Confederation made a survey for the year 1961 of indirect personnel expenditure, i.e., the social benefits, both compulsory and voluntary, for both workers and salaried employees in enterprises employing 25 workers and over. The survey covered 1,533 firms with a total of 230,000 wage earners and 67,000 salaried employees. According to the survey, the costs to employers of social benefits, in percent of net wages, was 14.1 percent for wage workers and 22.3 percent for salaried employees. The greater percentage for salaried employees results primarily from voluntary benefits given by employers in the form of pensions and death benefits, as shown in the following tabulation, in percent of net wages:

	Wage earners	*Salaried employees*
Total	14.1	22.3
Compulsory benefits:		
Vacation pay	6.6	6.3
Allowances for public holidays	2.5	3.2
Sickness benefits	.5	....
Employer's liability	1.3	.4
Voluntary benefits:		
Other benefits in case of accidents or sickness	.3	.2
Assistance after retirement and death	.3	8.3
Contributions to training	.4	.5
Medical assistance and health control	.1	.1
Holiday contributions	.1	.1
Contributions to recreations	.1	.3
Personnel welfare departments, etc.	.1	.1
Housing, etc.	.1	.3
Other social benefits	1.5	2.1
Transfer to funds	.2	.4

The survey indicated that social benefits vary greatly according to the size of enterprise. Although the relative size of the compulsory benefits was, on the whole, independent of the size of the enterprise, the costs of voluntary benefits per employee were four times as large in enterprises having more than 1,000 employees as in those having 25–30 employees. For wage workers, the reason for this difference in costs is due primarily to expenses for cafeterias, work clothes, and training; greater retirement and death benefits accounted for greater overall benefits to salaried employees.

Costs of social benefits differed among the various industries. The benefits were lowest for wage workers in the building industry (10 percent, cf. the 14.1 percent overall average for wage workers) and highest in the power stations (25 percent). For salaried employees, the variances were considerably greater; benefits were 14 percent in the furniture industry, 20 percent in the clothing industry, and 38 percent in the beverage industry.

Pay Period Frequency

The manner and frequency of wage and salary payments are regulated not by law (except seamen) but by collective agreement. Salaried employees in private enterprise, and civil servants, usually are paid monthly; the collective agreement may stipulate, however, more frequent payment for the nongovernment employee. Payment is usually by check, frequently deposited in a bank into an employee's savings or checking account.

Wage earners as a rule are paid twice a month, although some enterprises still pay weekly. Payment may be in cash but is increasingly by check. The Federation of Mechanical Engineering and Metalworking Industries and the Central Organization of Metal Workers have produced a booklet titled "14 days of Wages and Modern Payment of Wages," with a supplement, "Change-Over to 14-day Salaries." The 1969–71 collective agreement between the two organizations, which covers the largest single group of wage earners in Denmark, provides for payment of wages on the first Thursday after each 2-week pay period, unless a local agreement calls for a payday on Friday. Wages shall be defrayed in cash or through wage checks deposited in a bank or savings bank, either into a checking account or to be paid on demand. The agreement urges payment in the latter, "modern" method but states that local agreements shall represent the wish of the majority of workers of a firm. At firms in which the majority of workers are covered by a different collective agreement, the wage period shall be that of the majority.

The law covering seamen (Act No. 229, of June 7, 1952) requires that payment of wages can be demanded only when the ship is in port and not oftener than once a week in any one country. Wages must be in cash, unless the seaman asks (1) for a draft on the ship owner, (2) that they be in the form of a monthly allotment to a specified person in Denmark, or (3) that they be paid into a Danish banking institution. In the latter two cases, however, only three concurrent allotments can be requested. Payments in a foreign country may be requested in the local currency at the present rate of exchange.

Chapter XII. Health, Safety, and Workmen's Compensation

Health and Sanitation

Legal provisions concerning health of employees and sanitation in places of employment are extensive and comprehensive. They are found mainly in three acts of June 1954: The Occupational Safety, Health, and Welfare (General) Act, No. 226; the Occupational Safety, Health, and Welfare (Commercial Establishments and Offices) Act, No. 227; and the Occupational Safety, Health, and Welfare (Agriculture, Forestry, and Horticulture) Act, No. 228. The General Act No. 226 is the principal and most comprehensive of the three and has been amended, and strengthened, frequently, most recently in June 1968 by Act

No. 245. The Labor Inspection Service and the inspection services of the local authorities under the guidance of the Minister of Labor supervise compliance with most of the provisions of these Acts and of most other regulations concerning health and sanitation. (See Enforcement.)

Under the three main laws, any person, whether employer or worker, who violates the Acts or the regulations, orders, or prohibitions thereunder is liable to a fine "provided the offense does not carry a more severe penalty under the general legislation." Employers must post, and employees must observe, notices containing warnings or caution requirements if so ordered by the Director of the Labor Inspection Service. Where any young person under age 18 is employed contrary to the legislation, the employer and also the parent or guardian are liable to a fine if the work has been carried on with their knowledge and consent.

All three acts provide that the employer, when laying out a workplace and production plant and in arranging the work processes shall ensure (1) that the workers are properly protected against accidents and influences injurious to health, and, (2) by instruction and adequate supervision, that the work is done with due regard to accident and health risks. These Acts also require the employer (1) to make certain that workers are informed of any dangers of disease and accident involved in their work and of the rules to be observed to avoid such dangers; and (2) to give special attention to the training of newly engaged workers, apprentices, and young workers. The workers themselves are obligated, under these Acts, to cooperate in ensuring that the measures adopted to protect them have the intended effect.

Act 226 covers employment of any kind, whether public or private, in industry, crafts, building and construction, laboratories, and transport (including loading and unloading), and work in storerooms and warehouses. The provisions of this act regarding health and sanitation at the workplace and those in Act 227 covering commercial establishments and offices, whether public or private, are identical.

The two acts stipulate the following standards for conditions at a fixed workplace to protect the health of the worker:

Ceiling heights of workrooms must be at least 8.2 feet, and in some cases 9.84 feet.

Air space for each worker in a workroom generally must be at least 424 cubic feet; however, effective ventilation arrangements may lower this figure to 283 cubic feet.

Floors of workrooms must be tight and heat insulated, no more than 3.28 feet below ground level, and impenetrable to ground moisture.

Roofs, walls, and ceilings of workrooms must be tight and heat insulated; coating on walls and ceilings must be properly maintained. Papering of walls and ceilings, if detrimental to health and cleanliness, may be prohibited.

Lighting regulations provide that an adequate amount of natural light shall be accessible to workers except where detrimental to production, in which case artificial light shall be of appropriate type and power, without glare or objectionable shadow effects.

Cleanliness of the workplace is mandatory. Cleaning must normally be done outside working hours and in such a way as not to raise dust.

Temperature of workrooms must be kept at a level appropriate to the workers and the nature of the work.

Drinking water must be ample, wholesome, fresh, and easily accessible, and hygienically dispensed.

Adequate *washing facilities* shall be provided in places convenient to the workroom and shall be kept clean. A hot water supply to the basins, and bathrooms with hot water, are required under certain conditions.

Clothes-changing rooms shall be provided in enterprises in which workers must change clothes; separate facilities for each sex and appropriate arrangements for storing workers' clothing must be maintained.

Bicycle (and similar vehicle) parking facilities must be provided for workers using such transportation to reach the workplace.

Special working clothes, where the type of work so demands, must be provided by the employer, who must also provide for their cleaning should that involve unreasonable costs to the employee. The affected workers are obliged to use the special working clothes prescribed.

Resting and mess rooms, with facilities for heating food and drink, shall be provided for workers to

use during the agreed and prescribed luncheon and other breaks.

Toilets shall be provided in adequate number, properly arranged and conveniently situated and with lavatories or wash basins and an adequate supply of toilet paper. Separate facilities for each sex are required unless fewer than five persons of either sex is employed.

Ventilation shall be such as to provide an adequate supply of fresh air, if necessary by artificial means.

Fumes, smoke, poisonous and explosive gases, etc., in particular workrooms or sections shall be removed as far as possible at their place of development and prevented from penetrating into other workrooms. Where contamination of the air is unavoidable, all possible measures shall be taken to protect the workers' health.

Humidity shall be kept at normal levels, and where the working process entails a harmful increase in humidity, all possible measures shall be taken to protect the workers therefrom.

Dust levels shall be kept low. The working processes shall be kept as free from dust as possible, and were the generation of dust cannot be prevented, all possible measures shall be taken to protect the workers against it.

Poisonous and other injurious substances shall be replaced by less dangerous substances where possible, but in establishments in which dangerous substances must be manufactured, produced, applied, weighed, or packed, all necessary measures to protect the workers must be taken. The Minister of Labor may prohibit the manufacture or use of particularly dangerous substances, in whole or in part, or require that all containers and packing containing them in pure or mixed form be clearly marked.

Risk-of-infection provisions require that where the working process or the circumstances in which the work is carried on involve particular danger of infection, suitable measures shall be taken against it.

Sleeping accommodations, properly arranged and separate for men and women, shall be provided by the employer where the location of the workplace is so remote or isolated that the workers cannot obtain lodging for the night as a matter of course.

Acts 226 and 227 contain provisions concerning medical examinations. Identical passages in these Acts require that within 4 weeks after a person under 18 has been engaged for work except as a messenger, the employer shall cause him to be examined medically to establish his suitability for the work, unless he produces a medical certificate made out within the past 6 months relating to the same type of employment. The Minister of Labor may prescribe that persons under age 18 in particular groups of trades be examined immediately before beginning work and undergo regular medical examinations while they are employed; the employer pays the cost of the medical examinations and the necessary certificates. Act 226 provides that, for "the prevention and combating of occupational diseases," and in establishments "where the work in other respects involves great health risks, . . . the Director of the Labor Inspection Service may direct that, as a condition for a worker's employment in an establishment, he be medically examined at regular intervals, including where necessary a medical examination prior to his entering upon the employment." The workers are required to submit to the examinations, the costs of which must be paid by the employer, "apart from the cost of the medical examination of workers over 21 years of age that may have to be made before the workers start work."

The 1954 legislation on agricultural workers has no specifics regarding health and sanitation at the workplace. Act No. 156 of May 1961 covers those agricultural and domestic workers who receive board and/or lodging from their employer as part of their remuneration, and includes, among other things, standards for food and lodging provided. The act requires the employer to supply good, wholesome, adequate, and well-prepared meals containing the proper amount of necessary nutritive elements. Minimum standards for lodging in an employer's household are set regarding size, location, condition, persons per room, heat, light, room furnishings, fresh sheets and towels, bath and toilet facilities, egress, insurance on personal belongings, etc.

Aside from those employing seamen, and agricultural and domestic workers covered by Act No. 156 of 1961, employers rarely provide food or lodging. Company housing is limited to one or two fairly large enterprises recently established in rural areas, and is not covered by legislation.

Seamen are covered by the Seamen's Act No. 229, June 1952, and Notification No. 9, January 1953, covering crew accommodations. The former provides that the person directing the work shall observe the necessary safety precautions to prevent diseases and accidents, that the necessary time for rest and sleep be given, that good and sufficient food be provided, and that the master shall superintend the hygiene, accommodation, and cleanliness on board. It also prohibits employment aboard ship of (1) anyone who has not passed the required medical examination, (2) males under 15 and females under 18, and (3) males under 18 as trimmers and under 19 as stokers or motormen. Notification No. 9 covers ships of 20 tons or over whose keel is laid or which is imported from abroad after January 29, 1953. It gives very detailed requirements regarding crew spaces, including location and structure, lighting, ventilation, heating, painting, and cleaning; sleeping rooms (number of persons per room, separate sleeping rooms, dimensions, berths, ventilation, cupboards, storage of goods); mess rooms; galleys; washrooms; toilets; and hospital accommodations.

Aside from those required on ships, facilities for the care of injured or ill employees are less extensive in working establishments in Denmark than in many other countries, because medical care and hospital treatment are available to virtually all persons under the general health insurance system. (See General Social Insurance System.) Facilities usually consist of the maintenance of a first aid kit, although some very large establishments do have well-equipped infirmaries and a few have their own medical staff (usually a nurse, but sometimes a doctor also).

Safety Conditions and Required Precautions

The principal legislation covering workers' health and sanitation—Acts Nos. 226, 227, and 228—also establishes the legal standards for prevention of accidents and occupational diseases. (See Health and Sanitation.)

The legislation contains detailed stipulations regarding the prevention of accidents, the prevention of health hazards and accidents through the use of personal protection equipment, and measures to meet special elements of danger. The general provisions for the prevention of accidents are as follows:

a. Buildings, plant, and equipment (including scaffolding, gangways, etc.) must be safely constructed and properly used and maintained. Where required by circumstances, the employer shall see that examinations, tests, or inspections are carried out (if appropriate, by experts) to verify the safeness of the construction.

b. When laying out buildings and plants, care shall be taken that the workplace is provided with passageways, staircases, and exits which duly ensure the safety of the workers if fire or other dangerous incidents occur, and that any dangerous pits, recesses, etc., are fenced in or covered. Tunnels, galleries, etc., shall be properly constructed and maintained. Floors shall be maintained in such condition as to avert the danger of falls and to permit materials or finished goods to be transported without risk. Lighting shall be adequate to avoid accidents.

c. No worker shall be assigned to a particularly dangerous job if the employer knows or should know that the employee is unfit therefor physically or mentally. Similarly, the employer must not assign a worker whom he knows to suffer from fainting fits, dizziness, hardness of hearing, severe shortsightedness, or any other defects, to jobs in which such defects are liable to create a special danger to those around him.

d. Enterprises and workplaces must maintain first aid supplies considered necessary by the Labor Inspection Service, whose Director is empowered to order the layout of a special casualty ward in large establishments, and to require that where 20 or more workers are employed at a workplace at least one of the workers shall have attended a Service-approved first aid course.

Special provisions relating to certain sources of danger apply to machinery, containers for steam or gases under pressure, other dangerous containers, transport operations, and other sources of danger. Machinery must be solidly constructed and so designed and secured as to present as little danger as practically possible, and, where necessary, provided with proper safety devices, which must not be removed while the machinery is working. Passageways must be of sufficient size and kept sufficiently clear to permit safe passage. Spaces between machines must be safely fenced off whenever machines are in operation. The mounting of belts, ropes, etc., and maintenance operations, while the machinery is in operation, is restricted. Workers in such operations must not wear clothing liable to increase the danger involved and persons under 18

years of age must not be employed in such work at any time. Repairs near dangerous machinery may be carried out only when the machinery is stopped and properly secured against starting while the work is underway. Other safeguards against dangers posed by the starting and stopping of machinery and by transmission gear are spelled out in detail.

Regulations covering operations involving steam or gases under pressure relate to strength, design, erection, and surveillance of the containers and to restrictions governing the workers involved. The tending of such containers is limited to reliable persons aged 19 years and over. The person in charge of these facilities must hold a certificate issued by the Director of the Labor Inspection Service; persons who unaided tend such facilities must hold an attestation issued by a factory inspector as to their possession of the knowledge required for such work.

The section on prevention of accidents also covers dangerous containers and transport operations where hoisting apparatus, cranes, tipwagons, trucks, chutes, and barrows are used. This equipment must be of adequate strength and in good repair, and must not be overloaded; loads must be attached securely and detached or unloaded in a safe manner. Precautionary measures are required in the event of risk of collapse of buildings, chimneys, bridges, containers, etc., or of falling masses of earth, stacked materials, etc. The act also requires that all necessary precautions be taken to prevent accidents from suffocation, poisoning, or explosion while work is carried on in wells, pits, tunnels, pipelines, boilers, etc., and in the case of work with poisonous, explosive, or otherwise dangerous substances.

Legislation provides that, where practicable, appropriate working clothes, safety belts, gloves, and aids to protect the head, eyes, and respiration (masks, goggles, respirators) be provided and that the employer assume the cost of such special equipment. Workers are required, by law, to use the prescribed protective equipment; to act generally "in a prudent and orderly manner," to report without delay any injury, to their supervisor; and to cooperate in following the other protective measures cited in the Acts, including checking of tools, implements, apparatus, and machinery.

The Minister of Labor is empowered, after consultation with the Director of the Labor Inspection Service and the Labor Council, to (1) make regulations governing particularly dangerous equipment, products, and processes; (2) order that workers involved in activities related thereto have completed a specified course of training or have passed a test, or (3) prohibit the use of equipment or of exceptionally dangerous methods of work.

In each establishment employing 10 workers or more, the workers must elect one or more safety representatives to represent them in matters relating to industrial safety and health, except where collective agreements have provided for a body (e.g., a joint consultation committee) to discharge these duties. The safety representative "shall endeavor to promote sound and constructive cooperation between management and workers in matters relating to industrial safety and health . . . [and] . . . ensure that workers comply strictly with the regulations that may have been issued for their protection." He also reports to the employer on defective machinery, or work processes that "expose the worker to unnecessary danger." The law requires that close contact be maintained between safety representatives and factory inspectors. In establishments "where the working conditions involve particular danger to the safety or health of the workers, the Minister of Labor may . . . order the establishment of a safety service, which shall include persons with the necessary technical expert knowledge and one or more representatives of the workers."

Observance of good safety conditions and practices is reportedly at a high level in Denmark, though statistics on work accidents and injuries and work-related illnesses are not available. The regulations are quite comprehensive. Both management and labor have participated in the preparation of the statutes, take part in their development, interpretation, and revision, and cooperate fully in carrying them out. In addition, the Labor Inspection Service and the Labor Council, which enforce and improve the legislation, and administer the promotional research and training services they provide, are adequately staffed and operated. (See Administrative Bodies Concerned with Labor, and Enforcement.)

Accident and Occupational Disease Compensation

The Industrial Injuries Act of 1933, frequently amended, provides that every employer take out, with an approved private insurance company or employers' mutual association, ininsurance against work-connected injury or occupational disease for all his employees, paid or unpaid—with the exception of his wife or a domestic servant who works for him only 240 hours a calendar year, or less.[15] Those employers and self-employed persons with low incomes (in 1968 DKr9,000 annually or less) are permitted, under the Act, to take out insurance on themselves as well, and also on their wives if they take "a substantial part in the trade or business." The state provides for these "low-income" persons a 40-percent subsidy of any insurance premium for themselves, their wives, and their employees. The state also refunds to the insurance company the amount of benefit in accidents resulting from an attempt to save human life, unless such forms a natural part of the occupation.

The Ministry of Social Affairs has general supervision over the program; its Directorate of Industrial Injuries Insurance has direct supervision. The Industrial Injuries Board helps make policy and acts on appeals. (See Administrative Bodies Concerned With Labor.)

The Industrial Injuries Act contains a detailed list of occupational diseases, including bronchial asthma and severe rhinitis resulting from inhalation of a variety of vegetable, animal, and chemical products; other pulmonary and respiratory diseases due to inhalation of dust, smoke, fog, fumes, or gases; eye diseases and poisoning from 21 specified elements, metals, chemicals, gases, products etc.; skin diseases; diseases caused by exposure to radiation or vibration from pneumatic tools, etc.; deafness caused by noisy work; malignant neophasms caused by the action of arsenic, chromium, or organic compounds; infectious diseases transmitted by animals or animal products; and chronic infectious diseases contracted while working in health institutions or laboratories or in providing domiciliary care for sick persons. The Minister of Social Affairs is empowered to revise the list and/or add new occupational diseases, after consultation with the Industrial Injuries Board.

The benefits under the Act include medical treatment and benefits for temporary disability, total disability, death, and funerals. Medical treatment is provided only when it is not available under ordinary sickness insurance. (See General Social Insurance System.) The cost of medical appliances (e.g., artificial limbs, spectacles, wheelchairs, and similar aids) must be paid by the insurance fund to which the employer contributes.

The daily cash injury benefit for temporarily disabled workers, to be paid 7 days a week, is 75 percent of the injured person's daily wage, up to a maximum benefit of DKr72.22 per day. It is payable only after a 3-day waiting period unless the disability lasts 10 days or more in which case payment is computed from the first day. Twelve months after the accident, the Directorate must decide whether the injured person has a claim to total disability, but it may postpone its decision for an additional 2 years, i.e., until 3 years after the accident.

For permanent total disability the injured worker receives a monthly pension equivalent to two-thirds of his average monthly earnings during the previous year; if he has not been employed during the whole of the previous year in the same position or at the same wage, if he has been ill or unemployed, or if he has been employed in seasonal work, his earnings "shall be estimated at a reasonable amount." Maximum earnings for benefit computations were DKr32,500 a year in 1971. If only partially disabled, the injured worker usually receives a percentage of the full pension proportionate to the loss of earning capacity when the disability is 50–99 percent. For 5–49 percent disability, the benefit is commuted for a lump-sum payment following rules laid dowr by the Minister of Social Affairs on the recommendation of the Directorate. These rules take into account the age of the injured person, the length of time elapsed since the accident, and

[15] Section 7 of the act provides that "the Government shall have power to conclude reciprocal agreements with foreign states as to the extent to which the provisions of this Act or the corresponding provisions in force in the foreign state shall apply to undertakings whose business is also carried on in the other state, or to insured persons who are temporarily employed within the territory of the other state."

the degree of disablement. The amounts are: 7 1/2 times the amount of the benefit for disablement of 15 percent or less; 8 1/4 times for 18 percent; 8 1/2 for 20 percent; and for more than 20 percent 8 1/2 times, plus an amount not exceeding that for which a life annuity equal to the remainder of the benefit can be purchased in the State Life Assurance Institute. Pensions are adjusted automatically for fluctuations in the price index.

The act provides that if death results from a work accident, the surviving spouse receives 50 percent of the earnings of the deceased for the first 2 years after death and 30 percent thereafter. An orphan under age 18 receives 10 percent of the earnings of a deceased parent or 20 percent if fully orphaned. Widows' and orphans' pensions are automatically adjusted to changes in the price index.

The act also stipulates that if the bereaved or any other private persons pay for the funeral (cremation) of the deceased, they shall be granted an allowance of DKr825. The funeral grant is adjusted for changes in the price index, and in 1971 it was DKr1,175.

Chapter XIII. Social Insurance and Employee Cooperatives

General Social Insurance System

Denmark has a comprehensive social insurance system which provides income to the aged, the sick and the disabled, the unemployed, the parents of minors, and dependents of deceased persons. The Ministry of Social Affairs provides general supervision of all the programs. Family allowances and national old-age, widows', and orphans' pensions are financed entirely by the Government; disability, sickness, and maternity benefits, jointly by the insured persons, employers, and the Government.

National old-age pensions. All resident citizens, and aliens covered by reciprocity agreements, on reaching age 67 in the case of males, 62 in the case of females, or 60 in case of failing health or special circumstances receive a monthly old-age pension, for life, automatically adjusted to the cost-of-living index. Retirement is not necessary. As of April 1, 1971, the monthly pension for a married couple was about DKr1,102 and for a single person DKr731, plus an additional DKr319 and DKr160, respectively, if they have no outside sources of income. Since April 1, 1970, the amount of the pension no longer is related to the recipient's former earnings. The pensions are administered by the local governments. The national old-age pension is frequently supplemented by a "labor-market supplementary pension." (See Other Insurance and Retirement Systems.)

Disability pensions. Non-work-connected disability pensions are paid to persons whose capacity to work has been reduced on account of physical or mental disablement. Persons who have 100 percent disability receive a maximum of twice the amount of the national old-age pension, and those who have about two-thirds disability receive one and one-half times the old-age pension. The lowest disability pension—75 percent of the basic amount of the national old-age pension—is received by persons whose disability is at least 50 percent.

A disablement insurance court decides the extent of disability after examination of the person.

Death and survivorship. A pension corresponding to the national old-age pension is paid to (1) widows who have reached age 55, if widowhood began after their 45th birthday and the marriage had lasted for at least 5 years; and (2) widows over 45 who at the time of their husband's death have at least 2 children under age 18 to support. In addition, a "child's supplement" amounting to 25 percent of the national old-age pension is granted each surviving child under age 15, or age 18 if a student.

Family allowances. Any resident who has one

or more children receives a family allowance for each child under 18 years. In 1971 the regular annual rate per child was DKr1,124 (compared with DKr630 in 1967). The rate can be increased (to DKr1,664 per child in 1971) under certain conditions, and an extra amount (DKr1,228 in 1971) regardless of number of children, may be added under special circumstances. Payments are made quarterly. The program is administered by local social service offices.

Sickness and maternity insurance. All persons age 16 years and over, regardless of health, age, or financial position, must be members of a health insurance society recognized by the state. Children under 16 are covered by their parents' insurance.

Every year the Ministry of Social Affairs establishes an income figure corresponding to the average earnings of a skilled worker. Persons enrolling as active members [16] whose income is below this figure are admitted as a society's "A" group of members; those earning more are admitted as group "B" members. Persons over 16 years of age who are not "A" or "B" members of a health insurance society (or of a continuation health insurance society, as described later in this section) must be inactive members of a health insurance society; they pay DKr48 per year, but receive no benefits. Active members pay about DKr300–360 per year, according to the fund, for medical benefits. Employers make no contribution except for those for cash benefits described below. Government subsidies to sickness funds include DKr5.00 a year per member, and the following percentages of various costs;

	Percent
Cash sickness benefits	16
Medical, dental, and nursing costs	25
Chronic care costs	75
Hospitalization costs	95
Costs of vital medicines (e.g., insulin)	100
Costs of transportation	100
Cash maternity benefits	100
Contributions of needy members	100

All "A" and "B" members are entitled to free hospital and nursing care, home nursing, and a general grant (of DKr950 in 1970). In addition, the cost of medicine prescribed by a doctor is subsidized. "A" members are entitled to free medical care (i.e., care by a general practitioner or specialist, maternity care by a doctor or midwife), while "B" members are reimbursed in part for their expenditures for such care. Transportation costs for medical treatment are reimbursed by the societies.

Wage earners who suffer financial loss on account of illness are entitled to daily cash allowances. Since October 1969, the allowances have been DKr67.50 a day for breadwinners and DKr54.00 per day for others. These benefits are financed primarily through workers' and employers' contributions. Workers contribute DKr0.055 and employers DKr0.11, per working hour. The state pays the remainder. Cash maternity benefits are equivalent to those for sickness as provided by the insurance societies; they are payable for up to 14 weeks, including 8 weeks before confinement. "A" and "B" members who are not wage earners, mostly the self-employed and housewives, can insure themselves under a voluntary plan, through the payment of an extra contribution, for a daily cash benefit when ill; the insured chooses the amount of the benefit (and therefore of the contribution also), subject to certain minimums and maximums.

The continuation health insurance societies (mentioned earlier) admit as members only persons whose income is higher than the figure established for the division between "A" and "B" group members of the ordinary health insurance societies. They may provide only sickness benefits (free hospital admission, and help with cost of medical attention and medicine) and burial assistance; they receive no subsidy from the state.

Other Insurance and Retirement Systems

The Labor Market Supplementary Pension (*Arbejdsmarkedet Tillaegspension*—ATP) Act No. 46 of 1964, amended by Act No. 180 of 1965, provides, as the name implies, for the payment of pensions to the working population over and above those they receive under the general old-age pension scheme. The act applies to all workers, including government employees, over age 18 years having at least 15 hours' weekly employment with the same employer; apprentices under an approved apprenticeship contract are excluded. As of mid-1969, registered members totaled 1.8 million, or approxi-

[16] Also referred to as benefit members, full members, or contributing members.

mately 80 percent of the gainfully employed population.

The supplementary pension plan is self-supporting. Both contributions and pensions are flat rates. They are not subject to automatic adjustment for changes in the cost-of-living index, and have in fact remained unchanged since the start of the plan in 1964.

The employee pays two-thirds, the employer one-third of the full contribution, as shown in the following tabulation, in kroner:

	Total	*Employee*	*Employer*
Weekly payments for members paid by the week:			
30 hours with the same employer	5.40	3.60	1.80
15–29 hours with the same employer	2.70	1.80	.90
Monthly payments for members paid by the month:			
130 hours monthly with the same employer	21.60	14.40	7.20
65–129 hours monthly with the same employer	10.80	7.20	3.60

In practice, the employer deducts the employee's part from every paycheck and is responsible for payment of the total contribution to the ATP fund at quarterly intervals.

ATP pension members on reaching age 67 receive DKr300–2,400 annually, depending on years of contributing membership. Wage and salary earners who enrolled in the plan within a year after its coming into effect on April 1, 1964, receive DKr600 a year if they retired (at age 67) after only 1 year of membership. Their pension increases by DKr24 a year for the 2d through the 6th year, by DKr60 a year for the 7th through the 20th year, and DKr120 for the 21st through 27th years. For later enrollees the pension is DKr300 a year after 5 years of contributing membership and an additional DKr60 a year thereafter for each year of membership, up through the 40th year. Should a member wait until after 67 to apply, his annual pension is raised 5 percent for each 6 months' postponement; postponement cannot be carried past age 70, nor may the maximum pension exceed DKr3,120. The widow of an ATP member, on reaching 62 years of age, is eligible for one-half his supplementary pension provided the marriage lasted 10 years and the deceased had 10 years membership in the ATP. However, if the widow on reaching age 67 is entitled to an ATP pension of her own, she can receive only the larger of the two pensions. The 1971–73 LO/DEC agreement provides for a 66 2/3-percent increase in both contributions and benefits beginning October 1, 1972.

Employee Cooperatives

Denmark has very few employee cooperatives as such. However, the cooperative movement, involving individuals, professions, and industries, is strong and widespread and has an important effect on disposal income, industrial operations, banking, and other aspects of life in Denmark. Cooperatives handle the greater part of agricultural production of export, especially meats, butter, and cheese.

There are also many cooperative establishments owned and operated wholly or mainly within the labor movement—chiefly retail societies, cooperative bakeries, fuel societies, housing, and a few undertakings such as a press, a bank, a brewery, and a dairy, some of which are organized as limited liability companies. These are organized in the Union of Urban Cooperate Societies (*Det Kooperative Faellesforbund*—DKF).

A large number of establishments affiliated to the DKF are associated in four federations which in 1967 had memberships and annual turnover in millions of kroner, as follows:

	Number of establishments	*Turnover (millions of kroner)*
Associated Cooperative Bakeries	29	115
National Cooperative Association of the Building Trades	68	400 (Building output)
Cooperative Canteens' Association	79	65
Joint Council of Workers' Fuel Undertakings	7	13 (1968 figure)

A fifth federation, the Joint Association of Danish Public Housing Societies, builds annually about 12,000 apartments, or about 25 percent of the national total.

Also affiliated to the DKF are a number of consumer cooperatives, one of which, the Copenhagen and District Cooperative Society—the largest consumer cooperative in Denmark—in 1967 had a membership of 314,000 and a turnover of DKr1,200 million. Individual enterprises associated with the Union of Cooperative Societies include the Workers' National

Bank, the sixth largest bank in Denmark; the *Alka* life insurance company, which provides group coverage to about 400,000 workers; and 28 other establishments, which had a turnover in 1967 of about DKr225 million.

In 1936, the DKF and the LO founded the Labor Economic Council (*Arbejderbevaegelsens Erhvervarad*), which represents the economic interests of the workers in negotiations "with other economic organizations and the public administration." It also "keeps the Labour Movement informed about economic problems and developments."

Appendix A. ILO Conventions Ratified by Denmark as of January 1971

Number	Title
2	Unemployment (1919)
5	Minimum Age (Industry) (1919)
6	Night Work of Young Persons (Industry) (1919)
7	Minimum Age (Sea) (1920)
8	Unemployment Indemnity (Shipwreck) (1920)
9	Placing of Seamen (1920)
11	Right of Association (Agriculture) (1921)
12	Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture) (1921)
14	Weekly Rest (Industry) (1921)
15	Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers) (1921)
16	Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea) (1921)
18	Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases) (1925)
19	Equality of Treatment (Accident Compensation) (1925)
21	Inspection of Emigrants (1926)
27	Marking of Weight (Packages Transported by Vessels) (1929)
29	Forced Labor (1930)
32	Protection Against Accidents (Dockers) (Revised) (1932)
42	Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases) (Revised) (1934)
52	Holidays With Pay (1936)
53	Officers' Competency Certificates (1936)
58	Minimum Age (Sea) (Revised) (1936)
63	Statistics of Wages and Hours of Work (1938)
80	Final Articles Revision (1946)
81	Labor Inspection (1947)
87	Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize (1948)
92	Accommodation of Crews Revised (1949)
94	Labor Clauses (Public Contracts) (1949)
98	Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining (1949)
100	Equal Remuneration (1951)
102	Social Security (Minimum Standards) (1952)
105	Abolition of Forced Labor (1957)
106	Weekly Rest (Commerce and Offices) (1957)
108	Seafarers' Identity Documents (1958)
111	Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) (1958)
112	Minimum Age (Fishermen) (1959)
116	Final Articles Revision (1961)
118	Equality of Treatment (Social Security) (1962)
120	Hygiene (Commerce and Offices) (1964)
122	Employment Policy (1964)

SOURCE: International Labor Office, *International Labour Conventions*, Chart of Ratifications (Geneva, June 1970).

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